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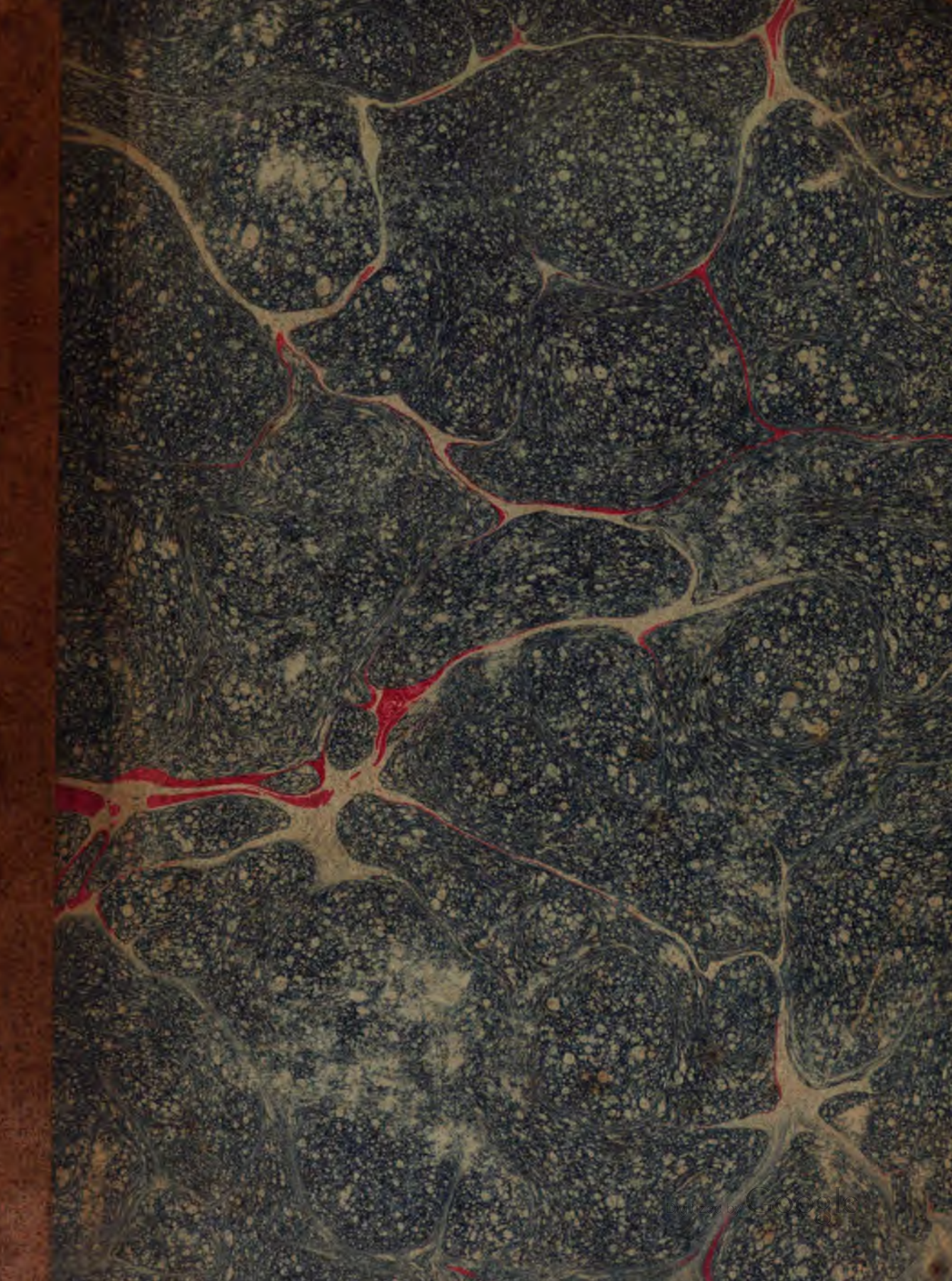
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LITERATURE.

General View of Literature for 1803.

WHILE we return our acknowledgements to the public for the very extensive patronage which, even in its first year, has been bestowed on our new attempt to introduce a regular Journal of Literature into this country; we cannot, perhaps, at the commencement of this new year, present any thing to our readers either more instructive or more entertaining, than a general view of what has been done in the Literary World during the course of the year eighteen hundred and three. We do not, in this view, intend to fill up our pages with a list of books and authors, and to recapitulate that catalogue which has already been so amply given in our different numbers; nor do we mean to enter at length into the merits even of those authors who have brought forward something new, or improved what was already known in the subjects of which they treat, a detail which furnishes materials for a number of successive reviews: the sketch we shall at present give, must of necessity be extremely general; it must be confined to the general spirit, the general improvement or corruption apparent in those works, which during the last twelve months have issued from the press; and must rather exhibit the general impression which has been made on our own minds by the literary works of that period, than the merits or defects of particular authors.

Every one must recollect the eager competition, and bustle of preparation which appeared in the literary world at the commencement of the last year. The return of peace, the removal of some burdensome taxes, and the long-interrupted intercourse which was opened anew with the Continent, seemed to have set free, and called into action, all the intellectual faculties of the nation. Authors of various descriptions who had completed their works, and awaited the favourable era of peace for their publication; soldiers who had returned from distant expeditions; historians who had been silently treasuring up the rapid events of the last war; travellers who had eagerly hastened, on the first conclusion of peace, to the capital of France to observe the effects of a twelve years revolution, and the rich spoils of so many countries—all eagerly pressed forward to communicate their information to an expecting Public. As the press was now become the vehicle for every species of intelligence, both in the most refined, and the most common arts of life, men of all descriptions were anxious, both for the sake of fame and profit, to proclaim their merits by this channel to the world; and numerous periodical publications were prepared to receive the essays of those who had not materials or leisure to write a book.

Nor were the booksellers backward to second this general eagerness for literary speculation. In the returning fondness of men for the arts and habits of peace, and in the free intercourse again opened with foreign nations, they saw a prospect of at length reaping a harvest which had so often been blighted by the storms of a long-protracted war. Authors received a liberal price for their productions, splendid editions of valuable works were undertaken, and literature promised to be more widely diffused, more elegantly adorned, and genius more liberally rewarded than it had been in any age or nation.

This happy prospect for Great Britain, and for the human species, was however of short continuance. The unceasing clamours of an ominous war-faction at home, having inflamed to madness the inveterate hatred of the French ruler towards this country, while at the same time their false depreciation of our national spirit, excited his hopes, Great Britain and France were again unexpectedly plunged into a war, whose only object and end appeared to be mutual destruction. From the arts of peace, the minds of our countrymen were suddenly turned to the defence of their lives and properties against threatened ruin; and amidst the hurry of military levies and exercises, the ingenious and splendid productions of the press were almost forgotten. The swarm of periodical publications which had appeared at the commencement of the year, almost without exception, died away; the attention of ingenious men was distracted from their pursuits, which were either interrupted for the time, or altogether abandoned; and the spirited booksellers who had risked so much in the cause of literature, found their new works and splendid editions left in heaps upon their shelves.

Fortunately for the cause of knowledge and civilization, the general alarm has in some degree subsided. The force employed against us indeed continues daily to increase; but our means of repelling it increase in a much greater proportion; and the confidence arising from so great a part of the population being armed and disciplined, has again begun to give activity to those pursuits which can only flourish amidst a general sense of security. We trust that in the course of the present year, we shall have to call the public attention to many literary performances of merit.

Such has been the complexion of the times during this last year, and such the effects which public events have produced on the literary world. In viewing the works which have appeared in different branches, we find few of much consideration in PHYSICS, and the sciences connected with it. The works which have appeared on the various branches of PHYSICS, have been mostly confined to detached parts of each branch. *Natural History* has became a favourite topic of reading with the many, and the brilliant plates with which works of this nature may be adorned, have not been forgotten as incentives to purchasers;

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but as the merits of the engraver and printer are in those works most conspicuous, they do not fall particularly under our observation. The *Testacea Britannica* of Mr. Montagu, has given a very ample detail of the shells found in this island: and Mr. Lambert's *Genus Pinus* affords a most splendid treat to the lovers of Botany. We have also seen the elegant and ingenious pen of Mr. Playfair employed in defending the *Huttonian System of Geology*. In *mechanical philosophy*, Dr. Small has with considerable success introduced the *Astronomical Discoveries* of Kepler to the more particular acquaintance of his countrymen; and the late Bishop of Clonfert's *Analysis of the Principles of Natural Philosophy* has been given to the public. In *Chemistry*, although the science has been rapidly advancing, the books written have been necessarily few. To conduct experiments of magnitude with precision, and to obtain such a number of results as may afford a solid foundation for a general law, is the work of much time, much labour, as well as great information and talents. Yet in *Chemistry* it is by such arts alone that advances can now be made, as the enlightened geniuses who of late years have applied to that science, have for ever banished from it that false mode of forming theories, which substitutes the bewildering chimeras of fancy for the actual observation of facts which alone leads to truth. We must here caution our readers against supposing that the small number of the literary productions marks a supineness in any branch of experimental philosophy. We have already given reasons why any great advances must be slowly produced; and it has become customary with men of science to publish, from time to time, the results of their labours in various periodical repositories of science, which, however valuable, cannot fall properly under the notice of a review. All that we can for some time expect of large works on Experimental Philosophy, are collections from time to time of those facts which are successively ascertained. Of this sort we have last year received a valuable addition in Cavallo's *Elements of Natural and Experimental Philosophy* in four vols. Mr. Johnson has also collected the facts on *Animal Chemistry*, in three volumes. The various experiments on *Galvanism*, have of late excited public attention, and given rise to publications of various sizes, which have not, however, thrown much light on this branch of science.

The first volume of a very valuable work conducted by Dr. Hutton, Dr. Shaw, and Dr. R. Pearson, has also made its appearance. It is an *Abridgement of the Philosophical Transactions* of the Royal Society, and promises to prove a repository where every thing valuable in the scientific researches of this country will be contained, free from those heaps of accumulated rubbish which would otherwise perplex and disgust the reader.

A very important improvement in the science of ANATOMY, has, in the course of the last year been proposed by Dr. Barclay. He has published the outline of a new *Nomenclature*, formed on a regular plan, and deriving its appellations from fixed appearances, instead of that confused and indefinite mass of terms by which the student of Anatomy has been so long obstructed and confounded. Dr. Barclay has, however, to conduct his nomenclature through a system of Anatomy, before it can be received as a substitute for the one at present in use. The progress of the *Veterinary Art* has called forth some works in *Comparative Anatomy*; but this branch is as yet in its infancy.

The publications on MEDICINE are always as numerous as the diseases, and the theories of the diseases which present themselves. The *Cow-pox* has during the last year been the great animating principle of the many medical pamphlets which have issued from the press. The efficacy of this great discovery seems now to be acknowledged in every quarter of the globe. The medical attendants of the inferior animals, have also begun to communicate their useful discoveries through the press; and the several *new Systems of Farriery*, &c. which are produced, give room to expect that man will not be the only animal about which the faculty differ. The large profits which a medical practitioner may acquire with a little sprinkling of knowledge joined to other qualifications, and the vast labour of reducing medicine to any thing like a science, has hitherto prevented any one from hazarding that attempt. From the progress of chemistry, anatomy, and physiology, we may however expect important improvements in medicine.

AGRICULTURE, that solid source of national wealth, has lately been much improved, in consequence of the discoveries made by several chemists and scientific farmers, and communicated in a variety of pamphlets; and the other useful and ornamental arts have produced a list of publications, which in a literary point of view do not require particular notice.

The SCIENCE OF MIND, and the branches connected with it, open the widest field for literary abilities. The examination of the powers of the human mind, and the laws by which they are regulated, has, by Dr. Reid and his followers, been brought down from the vain regions of theory, and conducted on the solid foundation of facts ascertained by experience. While the mere speculations of fancy, supported by ingenious sophistry, with a veil of metaphysical jargon thrown over their defects, were received as actual advances in this science, new systems of mental philosophy might every day be expected to supersede those already in vogue. But when facts are required as the foundation of theories, and when terms are accurately defined and understood, every step must be taken with caution, and the advances must necessarily be slow. The number of books on this subject must therefore diminish, while their value must greatly increase.

THEOLOGY has during the last year called forth comparatively few writers. The violent attempts made to banish religion altogether out of the world, by a set of men whose vices made them willing to believe themselves atheists, had previously been opposed with the greatest success and nearly subdued. That controversy between sects, which was once such a prolific source of massy volumes, has given way to a milder and more rational spirit; and men of superior genius have found exercise for their talents in pursuits more within the reach of human comprehension. To free our systems of theology from those doubts and obscurities which overhang them, opens indeed a wide

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field for talents in the most important object that can occupy the attention of man: but it is only by candid and patient investigation that this can be effected; and the mere repetition of what has already been a thousand times written and spoken can scarcely deserve notice in a review of theological literature. During the course of the last year, Mr. Bryant in his *Observations on some Parts of Scripture*, has shewn us the edifying example of a layman, continuing in his 78th year to advocate the cause of Christianity with diligence and success. Marsh's defence of his *Hypothesis on the Origin and Composition of the three first Gospels*, against a supposed attack of the Bishop of Oxford, has excited the attention of controversialists; and in Mr. Sharpe's fanciful doctrine of the Greek article, which has been dexterously attacked by Mr. Gregory Blunt, we have an instance of an over-zealous friend injuring a good cause by false arguments, which it does not require for its support. With single sermons of all descriptions, the greater portion indeed political, the press has of late overflowed. We cannot indeed suppose any of these will circulate much beyond the little range of friends or hearers, which perhaps was all that was intended when they were given to the press: One exception however requires to be made of the eloquent discourse of Mr. Hall on the *Sentiments proper to the present Crisis*, which concludes in a strain of glowing eloquence that has rarely been surpassed. The volume of Sermons the most deserving of notice is that by Dr. Browne of Aberdeen; yet even here we find nothing particularly striking.

The Laws of our country, and those who study them, are yearly obliged to many diligent gentlemen who add an infinite variety of new cases and decisions to the stock already on hand. We say *obliged* to them; for the vast and imperviable collection of opinions and precedents, so rapidly accumulating, must one day compel government, as it happened to Justinian, to find some means of cleansing the Augean stable, if it is intended that the study of law should be at all practicable.* The inconvenience of this unwieldy accumulation is indeed less felt by the nation, while the excellent institution of Juries, and the upright conduct of our judges, which is daily reported to the public, remedy in a great degree the defects of our code.

In Political Science several works have appeared, and some of them bear the characteristics of a sound and just philosophy. No science has been less rescued from the follies of random speculation than politics. So much are the passions of men interested in the questions which arise on this subject, that calm investigation and candid discussion are rarely resorted to; and to establish true principles is much less the object than to confound antagonists. Hence it is that amidst the general uncertainty which over-hangs political science, theories of the most wild and extravagant nature have been successively written and admired; and to form systems of government and of political economy, have been the favourite recreations of leisurely philosophers in all ages. The philosophical views of Turgot, and the clear, solid, and comprehensive principles of Smith in his Wealth of Nations, have indeed of late years turned the labours of political inquirers into a channel which may conduct them to useful and important truths. The wild and unmeaning jargon introduced during the French revolution into every thing which respects the nature and actions of men, has indeed greatly impeded the progress of rational inquiry. We now read, with mingled surprise and contempt, of the efforts which were made to banish common sense out of the world; yet we should recollect that it is but eight or ten years since the Political Justice of Godwin was received by many people as a system actually intended to direct the actions of men. We may also observe, on the other hand, that the abuse of free inquiry has produced many obstacles to the progress of political science. An apprehension that the bonds of society were about to be torn asunder by the delusions of theorists, induced the peaceable and well-meaning to cling to their old habits, and even to those prejudices and abuses which time had interwoven with their ancient institutions. The advances of political science will by this means be rendered more slow, but at the same time we trust more solid. During the course of the last year, we have seen a work appear in which the nature and progress of the English Constitution have been delineated with the hand of a master; and we account it a public loss to this empire, that the labours of Millar were interrupted by death before their completion. The Inquiries of Malthus into population, and those of Brougham into the Colonial Policy of Europe, although not free from an inclination to speculate beyond what is warranted by facts, are in general conducted on true philosophical principles, and may be esteemed as considerable accessions to the science of political economy. The controversial pamphlets of our domestic parties, with which the press constantly teems, deserve little attention from a literary review. Two, however, distinguished by the signature of the *Near Observer*, and the reply of the *More Accurate Observer*, have acquired particular celebrity from their being considered as the manifestoes of the late and the present administration. The loyal effusions of all sorts to which the present circumstances of the country have given birth, are innumerable.

In Political History, or History properly so called, the number of candidates for public favour have been numerous. The British temper seems particularly well calculated to undertake that patient, grave, and persevering investigation which is necessary to the composition of history; and no country of modern times rivals Great Britain, either in the value or number of her historians. The great events of the present reign, both at home and abroad, have naturally drawn forth many pens to record them; the names of Bisset, Adolphus, Wilson, Plowden, Coote, Stephens, and others, have swelled our literary catalogues of last year. To detail the respective merits of these authors, is the work of particular reviews: we shall here make only a few observations which are more or

* We understand that Government is at present employing some legal gentlemen of abilities, to revise the statute laws, with a view to their abridgment. *Editor.*

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less applicable to all of them. History, if intended for any useful purpose, ought ever to be fitted for the instruction of those who are to act: and whether it be the historian's intention to develope the plans of statesmen, to trace the operations of a campaign, or to describe the private actions of individuals, it should be his endeavour so to select the facts on which every event turned, that each example he records should afford an useful lesson of experience. Those historians who have done so to the most perfection, are justly raised to the highest share of reputation. The historians of the last year present few examples so finished as to be useful to any description of men. We hear of plans of statesmen, and resolutions of cabinets which fall as it were from the clouds, and again vanish like the baseless fabric of a vision, without leaving behind any trace by which they may be linked to the succeeding chapter of accidents. We read of battles having been fought, hundreds and thousands laid prostrate in the dust, a right wing victorious, and a left wing defeated; but the general who should search in such histories for a lesson from experience, would learn little more than that a battle may be won on the Rhine and lost on the Danube. In the descriptions of individual characters, the prevailing mode is equally uninstructive: instead of seizing upon the peculiar features which mark the disposition of a man, and afford the key to his actions, we usually find an inexplicable antithesis, or a collection of abstract terms which impress no distinct idea on the mind of the reader.

These histories indeed bear the marks of being hastily composed; and the contest seems to have been, not who should produce the best history, but who should anticipate his competitors. The narrative of recent events is always in danger of being crowded with details of no interest or use to posterity: in this age, where documents so much abound, and where the state of parties and the opinions of statesmen are so widely known by the publication of the parliamentary debates, historians load their pages with the opinions and characters of men, unimportant in the general picture of the times, and certainly to be forgotten by posterity. Such is the influence of all these causes, that we can look upon the histories of the last year in no other light than as narratives of that species known in France by the name of *Memoires pour servir a l'Histoire.*

We cannot close our observations on the histories of last year, without remarking one abuse which seems rather on the increase. It is an idea strongly impressed on every man who sits down to write a history at present, that this species of composition demands a certain gravity and dignity of style. It does not however seem to be understood, that in the best historians, these qualities of the expression, arise solely from the depth and magnitude of the thought. Hence it is that we have simple narrative perpetually overloaded, and rendered dull and tedious by an overflow of those foot-and-a-half words (as Horace terms them,) which by their lofty sound serve only the more to expose the emptiness of the matter. To render history dignified and elevated by such means, is like thinking to make an uneducated booby a grave and learned judge, by means of wrapping him up in the wig and gown of his lordship of the King's Bench.

There is a species of mixed composition, which along with geographical and topographical descriptions, contains likewise the manners and history of a particular people. Since the communication between the different parts of the world has been opened, this species of writing has become very general, and if well executed is equally entertaining and instructive. Voyages, travels, tours, letters, are daily issuing from the press, and along with novels, form the great topic of popular reading. The renewed communication with the continent, during the summer of 1802, has proved a most fruitful topic for travellers; yet although something is to be learnt from all of them, the work entitled, *Paris as it Was, and as it Is,* perhaps most deserves to be noticed for its composition and interesting materials; although we must enter our protest against the partial spirit in which it is written. Translations of the 2d volume of Pallas's travels in the Crimea, and Golberry's in Africa, have been given to the British public. A very happy example, set to civil and military officers by the French, of describing those scenes where they have acted or been stationed by government, has been imitated by some of our officers. Besides Sir Robert Wilson's narrative of the expedition in Egypt, other officers have, though not very happily, attempted descriptions of that scene of warfare; and Mr. Wittman in his account of the military embassy, has added many interesting particulars of the state of the Turkish empire. Percival's account of our newly acquired possessions in Ceylon, has been received with approbation. Dallas's history of the Maroons contains much curious information.

Topographical History has of late been much and most justly encouraged. All the counties of England will soon have their respective historians. Polwhele has this year described Cornwall at great length.

Biography is a species of literature equally agreeable to readers of every description; and its materials rise up in a continual and inexhaustible succession. A hasty and careless mode of composition, a deficiency in those facts which mark the character, and an extreme negligence in tracing its progress and features, are almost the universal defects of our present biographical sketches. It is here, that the most useful lessons of action ought to be found; but the rapid biographers of the age seem anxious to write what may be bought, without regarding the secondary consideration of utility. From this mass of crude and insipid made-up books, we must except the life of Reid by Mr. Stewart. Yet even here we have to regret the want of private anecdote; and this performance, however we may admire the composition, is chiefly valuable for the view which it contains of Reid's philosophical opinions.

It has of late become very much the vogue to chuse out some distinguished personage, whose life may serve as a sort of cement to connect the anecdotes and incidents of the times in which he lived. Of this mixture of history with biography, Godwin's Life of Chaucer, (of which a review is given in the following

part of this Number) is the largest specimen that has appeared in the course of last year. Another species which more properly falls under the denomination of biography, is the publication of private letters, connected perhaps by short narratives, to prevent the thread of the story from being broken. The life of Cowper, by Hayley, is a work of this sort; and (how much soever we disapprove her observations on them) the world is obliged to Miss Williams for the private correspondence of Louis XVI. The public has lately been presented with a collection of the letters and other pieces of the celebrated Lady Mary Wortley Montague, some of which had never before appeared in print. There is nothing in general, which can give a better opportunity of understanding a man's private character than those letters he never meant for the public eye; but over-officious friends would do well to recollect that by their cares in preserving to the world these fragments, they often expose weaknesses which might otherwise have been buried in oblivion. We are also compelled by the collections of letters lately produced, to remark in a particular manner, that the unselected correspondence, not only of obscure individuals, but even of public characters, unless their private habits be interesting, are equally tedious and uninstructive.

In WORKS OF FANCY, the last year has by no means been fortunate. Novels, plays, and poems indeed, appear in as rapid succession as—the streamers of the northern lights, we would say, were it not improper to compare with this brilliant meteor those unlustrous productions that do not even flash before they disappear from the sight for ever. The novels of the present day indeed serve the end of their creation; they bring a little money into the pockets of the writers, and enable the proprietors of circulating libraries to fill up their shelves at a cheap rate. And did their whole effects stop here, we should pass them over most willingly in the silence to which they are speedily consigned: but a severer censure ought to attend the consequences which we daily see flowing from them, in misleading the imaginations and corrupting the affections of those young men and women, whose parents are not sufficiently careful in directing their tastes and strengthening their moral principles. Instead of affording pictures of real life, and useful lessons for its conduct, the novels which have disgraced the press of last year, exhibit a meagre story, spun out into four or five wide-printed volumes, interspersed with a few improbable incidents to keep up the interest, embellished with some florid bombast known by the name of poetical description, and garnished throughout with that sentimental jargon which serves to debauch and fritter away all the better feelings of the young and thoughtless. Madame de Staël's Delphine, from the rank of the authoress and the superior extravagance of the performance, stands conspicuous among the novels of last year. We should earnestly wish that female performances of this sort were ever known in this country only by translations; nor can we account it a sufficient excuse for the prostitution of our country-women's talents, that their novels are usually too great nonsense to produce any effect either good or bad.

With regard to our *theatrical performances*, little of them comes under the observation of a literary reviewer; but that little gives us no cause to regret that it is not more. To rehearse and perform legitimate tragedy and comedy is too great a labour for the performers who enjoy the monopoly of our theatrical amusements. *Vehicles* are found a much more manageable commodity; and if the author can derive considerable profits from his vehicle, why should he toil at a more finished performance, which will most probably be left on his hands? We have this last year had vehicles of all descriptions; vehicles for music, for action, for situation; nay every actor has had his vehicle for that talent in which he imagines himself most to excel: while the meagre skeleton that comes to us through the press, makes the country reader wonder how a London audience should be attracted and pleased by what presents to him nothing more than a few ill-arranged and affected expressions interspersed with abundance of stage directions. As the comedy of John Bull has been given to the world only through a pirated edition, we shall merely observe with regard to it, that it is a pity the manager should buy off the publication of any piece that has pretensions to nature or humour.

Of the POETRY of last year, we can enumerate only some characteristics; the reader will find examples for himself in any poem of the period which may fall into his hands. The strong bent which the minds of men have of late years taken towards experimental philosophy, has induced men of poetical genius to attempt adorning these topics with the garland of the muse. The possibility of the attempt we shall not at present question; but must observe that the language of science being chosen merely for its precision, without any regard to melody or idiom, makes the most grotesque appearance imaginable amidst the glowing sentiments and language of poetry; while the results of experimental philosophy, which are obtained by separating and classifying groupes of facts, must be again mingled and confounded before they can be formed into the new associations of fancy. Dr. Darwin perceiving these stubborn obstacles, endeavoured to surmount them by personifying all nature, and making plants and minerals, as well as abstract qualities of all sorts, talk and act like (whimsical) men and women. The identity of species and qualities was thus indeed preserved to those who would undertake the task of decyphering these stranger than mythological fables; but instead of adorning science and rendering men enamoured of her, the poem was pleasing only so long as science kept out of sight; for as soon as *Tetradynamia*, or any other equally respectable father of a botanic family made his appearance in *propria persona*, the delusion vanished, and the reader was suddenly transported from a crowded assembly of gay and splendid personages, to the dry and uncouth catalogues of Linnæus. The perpetual personification of herbs and elements, was also too shocking to the common-sense of grown up persons, however probable it might appear to the philosophy of Darwin, which taught him that a cod-fish might in the ordinary course of things, obtain the form and qualifications of a counsellor of state. One might have hoped that the well-executed ridicule of the

Loves of the Triangles would have opened his eyes to the folly of his endless personifications, but his posthumous work *The Temple of Nature*, which appeared in the course of last year, presents another instance of a genius capable of excelling both as a poet and a philosopher, yet so led astray by a perverted imagination, that his labours serve only to corrupt the taste and confound the judgment. If the *Temple of Nature* really do belong to that goddess, we must conclude that she reckons it too fine to be inhabited, for certain it is, we are able to discover scarcely any trace of her footsteps on its threshold.

The superior genius of Darwin, has made us select him as an example of errors we would expose, and which a numerous tribe of imitators are daily propagating. Nor has he been less successful in hastening the corruption of the poetic *style*. A sickly aversion to the smallest appearance of ruggedness and uncouthness in the versification, has for some time been growing on the public taste; and our late importations of German sentiment, so much in unison with soft and mellifluous periods, have hastened the banishment of all obstinate ideas which might obstruct the uninterrupted flow of modulation. This improvement has been greatly facilitated by a new species of expletive. The *do*'s and *did*'s of Queen Anne's days are indeed wholly banished; but their room, and much more than their room, is occupied by an exhaustless flood of sonorous epithets. By means of these new expletives, the fortunate poet is enabled, without much thought or talent, to prolong a poem to any given length, without adding an idea; it also enables him to smooth away every appearance of harshness in his lines, and to produce such exact and melodious rhymes, that for pages together, nothing appears to disturb the repose of the reader "slumbering near." It is by means of these convenient expletives that Darwin contrives to round and accumulate that endless flow of smooth lines, with which he enwraps his imaginary personages; nor has a single poem of any length appeared in the course of last year that does not owe much of its length and smoothness to the same expedients.

We cannot close our general view of the literature of 1803, without remarking one most corrupt abuse that has during that period much encreased in the literary world. We allude to those crude scraps of celebrated authors which are ushered into the light, distinguished by the termination *ana*. Among the light and frivolous authors which swarm at Paris, it became customary to collect anecdotes, fragments, excerpts, &c. of all denominations, unconnected by any natural association, and without diligence in the author to arrange and digest them. These crude materials were, for a trifling price, put into the hands of a bookseller, and soon appeared under some denomination common to the subject matter, with the addition of the termination *ana*. Thus among others were produced Robespierriana, Bonapartiana, and one still better defined, *Asiniana*. This fashion having been transported to London, soon became the subject of imitation. Needy men, without talents or information, found it convenient to procure a small sum of money by dilapidating our most esteemed authors; and already have Swift, Addison, and other revered geniuses, appeared before the public in shreds and patches, with an ignominious *ana* tacked to their names. Nothing can be more injurious to the fame of an author, than thus to mangle his writings, and deal them out to readers in detached morsels; and unless parents and teachers strictly guard against the rising generation acquiring a taste for such frivolous and unprofitable reading, we may expect soon to find the true spirit of our best authors forgotten, and their names only known from their *ana's*.

In this general review we have comprehended most of the works translated from other languages, as well as those which have originally appeared in our own. A translation of Plato, by Mr. Taylor, which has just appeared, will be a valuable present to the public, if the merit of the translation corresponds with the beauty of the work, which is handsomely printed in five quarto volumes.

Among the new editions of celebrated authors illustrated by the labours of ingenious men, we in particular remark an edition of the British Essayists, by Mr. Chalmers, in which he has introduced some explanatory notes and several prefaces abounding with learning and information.

The superb editions of our most eminent British authors in prose and verse, which are daily issuing from the press, would demand our highest applause, if they were in truth a tribute of respect paid to genius: but when we see the same superb decorations prostituted to the most trivial and insipid performances, we are apt to utter a fervent wish that these fine editions be not wholly designed for those who may admire their appearance too much to sully them by use.

Ω

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

Life of Geoffrey Chaucer, the early English Poet; including Memoirs of his near Friend and Kinsman John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster; with Sketches of the Manners, Opinions and Literature of England, in the Fourteenth Century. Two Volumes. 4to. R. Philips.

The notoriety which Mr. Godwin has acquired by his publications, as various in subject as in size, naturally attracts considerable attention to whatever appears under his name. Report has caused the Life of Chaucer to be looked upon as a favourite child, as a work which has particularly occupied the industry of the author; and men have been anxious to know what could be said about a period that has not hitherto been considered as a promising subject for literary labour. Of the contents and merits of this work we shall attempt to give a representation, without allowing, if possible, the former reputation or principles of the author, in any degree, to influence our minds: principles may without blame be modified and altered by experience; and to appreciate works by the former reputation of the author is an error of the public, which has fatally obstructed the exertions and improvement of the most eminent literary talents.

Biography may be divided into two classes: the one details to us the actions, sentiments, and circumstances

of an individual, with a view to give us a full picture of his character and situation; the other, taking the history of an individual merely as a link to connect a series of events or opinions, makes him at all times subservient to this main purpose, and when he appears, it is evident he is made to do so, not so much for his own sake as to suit the occasions of the author. From the former species, we become acquainted with the motives which influence, and the consequences which follow the actions of mankind; and whatever be the rank, talents, or reputation of the character described, a well-written account of him is always entertaining and instructive, if he has either said or done any thing that deserves to be recorded. The second species of biography does not so much respect the character as the situation of the individual; if he has founded a system of philosophy, the opinions of that system may be detailed in his life; if he has commanded the armies of his country, the general history of the wars in which he has borne a conspicuous part, may be properly incorporated with his own history; the poet, the legislator, the artist, who have made any striking advances in their respective pursuits, may very properly have their lives selected as the connecting link in the history of these pursuits at the period when they flourished. The more prominent the figure, the better it is adapted for this purpose; for the mind revolts at seeing the actions or opinions of more illustrious men placed in the train of an individual comparatively obscure. Nor is it doing a less violence to our usual associations, to drag forcibly into the life of an individual, things quite foreign to those pursuits in which he obtained eminence: to comprehend a history of our civil wars in the life of the poet Milton, or to introduce into the life of Sir Isaac Newton an account of the state of poetry at the period when he lived, appears at once absurd; we should look into their lives for one species of information, and we should be disappointed and chagrined to find another of an entirely different nature. To avoid what so evidently shocks the association of ideas, writers, who have been particularly attached to the form of biography, and who wished to introduce under it a greater number of circumstances than could well be associated with the description of any private individual, have chosen the life of the Prince or public Governor as the connecting link of circumstances which happened during his administration. A public Governor occupies in a country nearly the same situation as in this species of biography; he is the great connecting link to which the eyes of the whole society are turned; we do not associate the idea of his life with any particular species of pursuit, nor are we surprised to find interwoven with it any transaction of the country and age in which he lived.

The *Life of Chaucer* evidently belongs to the species of biography we have just been describing: the circumstances more particularly relating to himself occupy a comparatively small part of the work: he is chosen as the connecting link in a description of the manners, literature, and various other circumstances of the times in which he lived. In adhering to this design, however, Mr. Godwin has had many difficulties to contend with; the events of Chaucer's life which have reached us are extremely few; his sentiments, habits, and connections are for the most part only obscurely guessed at from the hints which casually occur in his poems; and even of the little handed down to us concerning him, there is scarcely one circumstance which has not been disputed. Chaucer is also known merely as the *early English poet:* and therefore to connect, by any thing like a natural association, the history of the religion, military pursuits, and civil government of his times, with the events of his life, required no small share of ingenuity and pains. To obviate this difficulty Mr. Godwin has adopted a plan in some degree new: instead of employing Chaucer's life to connect the various circumstances of which he treats, it is his aim to make every other subject appear introduced with a view to throw light on the sentiments and actions of that poet. When it is intended to discover what were the early associations of ideas in the mind of Chaucer, Mr. G. thinks himself perfectly well entitled to introduce for this purpose a description of every thing the poet had seen or might have seen, every transaction in which he might have been engaged, or of which he might have heard by report. The state of religion, of architecture, of public amusements, of the city of London, during the period of his youth, might all have influenced the formation of his mind, and these topics are therefore attached to this part of his history; and in the same manner whatever might have contributed in the progress of his life to alter his sentiments, comes successively under review.

This plan of biography, considering it on general principles, seems extremely objectionable. It indeed presents to the view a general picture of what *might* have influenced the formation of the individual's mind, but discovers nothing of what actually *did* influence it. When we consider that of the numerous surrounding objects every man directs his attention to some one more than another, when we reflect that scarcely two men are to be found on whom these objects make the same impression, we must be convinced that to give a general description of what any man might have seen or heard, produces no distinct idea of what really influenced his mind. It is the province of legitimate biography to ascertain this latter point, and thus to discover the circumstances which distinguish a man from the rest of his species. Without such information, to present the reader with a general view of concomitant circumstances, serves only to bewilder him, and render him liable to error: he has to guess which of them really influenced the mind of the object of his enquiry; and if he should happen to guess wrong, the biographer is directly chargeable with giving him false ideas of human motives and actions. But the author of the Life of Chaucer does not leave the reader to the dangerous dilemma of guessing; he takes that risque upon himself; and accordingly, through a great part of the work, whenever Chaucer appears, it is for the purpose of shewing what impressions such and such circumstances *probably* produced on his mind. We do not blame Mr. G's. industry for not obtaining more complete information; we believe he has done nearly all in any man's power for this purpose: but when he saw that time had destroyed almost every document from which distinct information could be extracted, he should not have eked out his scanty materials by

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suggestions of fancy, and then held out this offspring of imagination to the world as an actual narrative of the Life of Chaucer. We must also take the liberty to say, that the principal figure appears to us disproportionate to the ornaments with which it is surrounded. Allowing all due reputation to Chaucer for whatever is certainly known concerning him, allowing him to have introduced a taste for original English poetry, and to have been the favourite of princes, still we are not a little astonished to find law, religion, courts, statesmen and soldiers, starting up on every side, and all for the sole ostensible purpose of influencing this early poet's mind. We admire the curious and splendid machinery of that age; but we are surprised and half indignant at the purposes to which it is applied.

We have stated the impression left on our minds by the *plan* of Mr. Godwin's work: it is a question in a great measure distinct from that of the *execution*. We have been the more particular in stating our reasons against the plan he has pursued, as from the prevalence of a taste for this mode of biography, we might soon expect to see this department of literature intirely lose its character, and the *Life* of a man brought to signify, a collection of whatever happened in his time, whether he was interested in the circumstances or not.

To analyse the work is the best method of enabling our readers to judge for themselves in what manner Mr. Godwin has executed his plan. In the preface, (which by the way is divided into sections in order to suit the frittering taste of the age) the author gives us his own ideas of his work. Every writer may be allowed to invite attention by magnifying in some degree the object of his labours; particularly a biographer who, as in the present instance, proposes to exalt his subject above the rank he bears in the ordinary opinion of mankind: yet with all these indulgences we cannot but be startled at the first sentence of the preface; "The two names which do greatest honour to the annals of English literature, are those of Chaucer and of Shakspeare." That Chaucer was a wonderful poet when we consider the times in which he lived, no man will dispute; but to enthrone him above Milton and all the other splendid geniuses who have adorned our literature both in prose and verse, is an hyperbole of rather inauspicious aspect at the commencement of a work. Mr. G. further informs us, that "no one man in the history of human intellect ever did more than was effected by the single mind of Chaucer." "The first and direct object of this work is to erect a monument to his name, and, as far as the writer was capable of doing it, to produce an interesting and amusing book in modern English, enabling the reader who might shrink from the labour of mastering the phraseology of Chaucer, to do justice to his illustrious countryman." As a secondary object of his plan, he says, that "if the knowledge of contemporary objects is the biography of Chaucer, the converse of the proposition will also be true, and the biography of Chaucer will be the picture of a certain portion of the literary, political, and domestic history of our country. The person of Chaucer may in this view be considered as the central figure in a miscellaneous painting, giving unity and individual application to the otherwise disjointed particulars with which the canvas is diversified." The propriety of this arrangement we have already considered.

Mr. G. complains of the meagre and dry details which are usually given to the world by antiquaries, and states it to have been his wish in this work "to carry the workings of fancy and the spirit of philosophy into the investigation of ages past." He congratulates himself on having made many discoveries by resorting to the national repositories in which our ancient records are preserved; a method of investigation he says almost entirely neglected by Mr. Tyrwhitt, the last editor of Chaucer. The full result of these labours however, he has not been permitted to give to the public, as the bookseller assured him that two volumes in quarto were as much as the public would allow the title of his book to authorise. He assures us also of a very material point, that no reference has been trusted without actually inspecting the book to which it was made.

The preface is followed by a dissertation on the date of Chaucer's birth, the usual date assigned to which is 1328. In a deposition however made by the poet in a disputed case of chivalry in 1386, he states himself to be forty years and upwards, whereas according to the commonly received date of his birth, he must then have been fifty-eight years of age. After some reasonings on both sides, Mr. G. declares in favour of the received chronology. Indeed, as he confesses, the new computation, if admitted, would destroy the whole fabric of the poet's education and early pursuits.

The date of Chaucer's birth was first assigned to the year 1328 by Mr. Specht, from comparing the inscription on his tomb in Westminster Abbey, which states that he died in 1400, with the accounts given by Leland of the times when he flourished. The place of his nativity is assigned to the city of London, from a passage in his works where he speaks of it as exciting in him that enthusiasm which all creatures feel towards their native spot. The inferences drawn from this passage are, that he also spent his early years in London, and that he was the son of a merchant. This latter inference Mr. G. assures us is somewhat *plausible:* there are few hypotheses so ridiculous as not to have this claim, at least, on our belief. The mention of London gives occasion to introduce a history of that city, its flourishing state under the Romans, its decay under the Saxons, its recovery under the Norman kings; its rapid increase of population, and the wealth of its citizens, some of whom in the days of Chaucer, were able to give sumptuous entertainments to kings.

Chaucer's probable initiation in letters in the city of London, introduces an account of the state of literature in that age. Learning had in a considerable degree recovered from the barbarism of the dark ages; the Norman race of kings were scholars themselves and the patrons of learning. Travellers had, under Henry I, begun to import the learning of the Saracens from the east: several popular histories were translated or composed, and eagerly received. Literature, however, still groaned under great disadvantages from the paucity of books, and the despotism of papal super-

stition, which, however, was now on the decline. The discredit into which the English language had fallen in consequence of the introduction of a foreign tongue by the Norman invaders, prevented any works of literature from being written in our vernacular idiom. In London, however, in spite of all these obstacles, learning was cultivated with considerable success: it contained in the times of Henry II. three public schools, besides many private seminaries, in which the arts of logical disputation, the elements of grammar, and exercises in verse, formed the principal topics of education. Although London had probably, by Chaucer's time, declined in these characteristics of an university, by the rising reputation of Oxford and Cambridge, yet it probably still retained many of its schools; and, inferring from his mercantile birth that Chaucer was not educated according to the custom of those days, as a page to some of the nobility, Mr. G. *pictures to himself* the poet daily resorting to one of the seminaries of the metropolis, and there *doubtless* becoming acquainted with the favourite Roman authors of the day. The poets of the Augustan age were then deserted for the florid writers of later times; and Greek literature was unknown.

Among the other early studies of Chaucer, our author thinks it can scarcely be questioned that romance was a favourite species of reading; and hence he takes occasion to elucidate the origin of romance, and its concomitant circumstances. Romance arose in the twelfth century from chivalry which prevailed in the eleventh century; and the origin of the latter is to be referred to the feudal system which was established in its most perfect form two centuries before. In the description of the feudal system which succeeds, nothing new is added by Mr. Godwin to the labours of former inquirers. In the days of Chaucer, he observes, this system was already a ruin, but its effects on society are conspicuous even in our days.

Romance was a record of the adventures of persons educated in those arts and habits of thinking, which arose from the spirit of chivalry, when every appeal was made to the sword, and when feats of prowess were accounted the noblest of human actions. A thousand supernatural and impossible ornaments, which were, however, allowed by the ignorance of the age, were intermingled with the narrative. Romances at first consisted of songs for festivals, and were accompanied with instrumental music. Their origin is referred by our author to the Runic and Scandinavian Scalds. While poetry was blended with the pagan mythology, it was gloomy and obscure; and it was not till Christianity had broken this connection, that the compositions of the minstrel became sportful, and the great source of pleasure in every scene of festivity. Minstrels were yet in their highest reputation in the days of Chaucer.

It is a characteristic of the old romance, that it gives the manners and adventures of chivalry to personages drawn even from the remotest periods of Greece and Rome. Charlemagne, Emperor of the West, and Arthur, king of Britain, with their followers, were the subjects of the two first romances of note. A grand prose narrative on the imaginary feats of the former against the Saracens in Spain was composed, as tradition has it, by Turpin, archbishop of Rheims, in the year 1100; and Geoffrey of Monmouth discovered in a convent a fabulous history of the kings of Britain, from the Trojan Brutus downwards. Wace, and Benoit de St. Marc wrote their romances in the reign of Henry II. and to Wace, the origin of romance, strictly so called, may be ascribed.

This subject being exhausted, Chaucer again appears. Our author justly asserts the importance of proper religious impressions in our early years; and concludes that the poet could not fail to be early instructed in whatever was regarded as "seemly, decent, and venerable:" and thus an opportunity is afforded of introducing a description of the Roman Catholic religion in the middle ages. The decay of this immense fabric, Mr. G. ascribes to the unfortunate result of the crusades. These expeditions "were attended indeed with the utmost brilliancy and astonishment; they propagated a sentiment almost beyond the powers and the sphere of the human mind. But this very circumstance was pregnant with ruin: they stretched too vehemently the *religious nerve* in the soul of man; and their ultimate defeat recoiled with fatal effect to plague their inventors." Unless this *religious nerve* means the abject dread of something unknown, which we call superstition, we must own ourselves at a loss to explain it: if our author means to assert that these terrors were much dissipated on discovering the fallacy of the Pope's pretensions by the result of the crusades, we allow the truth of the observation; but there were many other circumstances in the state of European nations and the natural progress of the human mind, which tended infinitely more to the overthrow of the Roman Catholic religion than the bad success of the crusades.

The strong and permanent hold which the Roman Catholic religion gained on the minds of men, Godwin attributes chiefly to its so forcibly addressing the senses. "Religion," he observes, "is nothing, if it be not a sentiment and a feeling:" we may add, —that if it be nothing more than a sentiment and a feeling, it is not religion. Unless the grounds of belief be ascertained, unless the understanding be informed and convinced, unless devotion proceeds from rational motives, it may be passion, it may be feeling, it may be the tremors of the *religious nerve*, but it cannot be "piety towards God, or love towards man." By Mr. Godwin's calculation the most ignorant and abject bigot, prostrated before a piece of the true cross, during what he emphatically terms the "*religious* ages," was infinitely more possessed of real Religion, than the enlightened christian of the nineteenth century who founds his belief on conviction, and worships God in spirit and in truth. If we estimate Religion by Mr. G's scale, the degree of impression produced on the senses by its external ceremonies, we shall look upon the reformed religion as a very base and inefficient worship indeed; the Roman Catholic, with all its appendages of images and processions, will rise higher in the scale; but the pagan faith which made a man see in every tree, shrub, and rock, the habitation of some god or demon, who had

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immediate power to favour or torment him, was the most substantial religion of all. Whether by this scheme of religion, Mr. G. wishes us to get back again as quickly as possible to the solid idolatry of our German ancestors, or whether by shewing that religious impressions are strongest when men are most barbarous and ignorant, and that they grow weaker as men improve in civilization, he does not rather mean to infer, that as society advances, the *religious nerve* will become less and less susceptible, and at last cease to vibrate at all—we leave to our readers to determine.

After the ideas of Religion with which our author has set out, we need not wonder he proceeds to celebrate and adorn with all the fairest colours of fancy the various appendages of the popish worship. The religious edifices and processions, the monasteries and convents, the masses for the dead, auricular confession, and days of abstinence are successively set forth in the most attractive form: extreme unction, indeed, does not meet with the same favour, being considered as stretching too violently the religious nerve. To enable our readers to judge of the sentimental style which Mr. Godwin affects on this occasion, we extract the following eulogium of masses for the dead: "When I have lost a dear friend and associate, my friend is not dead to me. The course of nature may be abrupt, but true affection admits of no breaks. I still see my friend; I still talk to him. I consult him in every arduous question: I study in every difficult proceeding to mould my conduct to his inclination and pleasure. Whatever assists this beautiful propensity of the mind, will be dear to every feeling heart. In saying masses for the dead, I sympathise with my friend. I believe he is anxious for his salvation; I utter the language of my anxiety. I believe that he is passing through a period of trial and purification; I also am sad. It appears as if he were placed beyond the reach of my kind offices; this solemnity once again restores to me the opportunity of aiding him. The world is busy and elaborate to tear him from my recollection; the hour of this mass revives the thought of him in its tenderest and most awful form. My senses are mortified that they can no longer behold the object of their cherished gratification; but this disadvantage is mitigated, by a scene of which my friend is the principle and essence, presented to my senses." Such is the sentimental cant by which Mr. Godwin endeavours to gloss over one of the most glaring abuses of the church of Rome; an abuse which destroys the fundamental principle of religion, the just reward or punishment of virtue and vice in a future state; which enables the wealthy villain, who can pay for an hundred masses, to buy off the vengeance of the Almighty, while the poorer sinner must continue to expiate his offences amidst the tortures of purgatory! Ω.

(*To be concluded in our next.*)

The Sentiments Proper to the Present Crisis. A Sermon preached at Bridge-street, Bristol, October 19, 1803: *Being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By* Robert Hall, *A.M.* 8*vo. pp.* 61. *London* 1803.

Though attached to the established church, it is with pleasure, not with envy or regret, that we see proofs of the progress of learning, of liberality, and of rational Christianity among the dissenters. The author of this sermon is already known to the public as an eloquent and enlightened defender of christianity. Few sermons in the English language have been received with more universal and deserved favour by all descriptions of Christians, than that on Modern Infidelity. In the recommendation of the religious sentiments proper to the present crisis, which occupies the first part of this sermon, there is nothing which is not sufficiently common. The language besides is several times too much in the cant of a particular, and in our opinion, a bad theory of Christianity, to be agreeable to us. In the middle of the sermon there are some ingenious and striking observations on the practical state of religion and morality in this country; and we most cordially assent to the author's remarks on the tendency of that philosophical doctrine which makes utility the principle of moral determination. The candid sentiments which the author inculcates towards opposite sects, and public rulers, do him great honour. The conclusion of the sermon refers to the political state of the country with regard to foreign nations, and is emphatically beautiful. Of all that has been said or written, upon this extraordinary topic, we regard this passage of Mr. Hall's sermon, as by far the most eloquent. The passage is long, but it would be impious to curtail it:

"How it may please the Ruler of the universe to dispose the destinies of the two most powerful nations of the earth, which are at this moment laid in the balance, it is impossible for us with certainty to say. But when we consider how many of his sincere worshippers, how large a portion of his church, together with how rich a fund of wisdom, of talents, and of all those elements of social order which he must approve, are inclosed within the limits of this highly-favoured land, we cannot believe he intends to give it up a prey to its enemies. Our insular situation is favourable, our resources prodigious, and the preparations which have long been making, apparently every way equal to the danger of the crisis; but still we would place our ultimate reliance on him who abases the proud, and exalts the lowly. It would be presumption to imagine it in my power to add any thing to those considerations, which have already produced such a general movement in defence of our liberties. The cause speaks for itself: it excites feelings which words are ill able to express; involving every object and motive which can engage the solicitude, affect the interests, or influence the heart of man. After a series of provocations and injuries, reciprocally sustained and retaliated, the dispute betwixt us and our enemies is brought to a short issue: it is no longer which of the two nations shall have the ascendant, but which shall continue a nation: it is a struggle for existence, not for empire. It must surely be regarded as a happy circumstance, that the contest did not take this shape at an earlier period, while many were deceived by certain specious pretences of liberty into a favourable opinion of our enemies' designs. The popular delusion is passed; the most unexampled prodigies of guilt have dispelled it; and after a series of rapine and cruelty, have torn from every heart the last fibres of mistaken partiality. The crimes of those with whom we have to contend are legible in every part of Europe. There is scarcely a man to be found who is not most perfectly acquainted with the meaning of that freedom they profess to bestow; that it is a freedom from the dominion of laws to pass under the yoke of slavery, and from the fear of God to plunge into crimes and impiety; an impious barter of all that is

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good for all that is ill, through the utmost range and limits of moral destiny. Nor is it less easy to develope the character of our principal enemy. A man bred in the school of ferocity, amidst the din of arms and the tumult of camps; his element, war and confusion; who has changed his religion with his uniform, and has not spared the assassination of his own troops: it is easy to foresee what treatment such a man will give to his enemies, should they fall into his power; to those enemies especially who, saved from the shipwreck of nations, are preserving, as in an ark, the precious remains of civilization and order, and whom, after destroying the liberties of every other country, he envies the melancholy distinction of being the only people he has not enslaved. Engaged with such an enemy, no weak hopes of moderation or clemency can tempt us for a moment to relax in our resistance to his power, and the only alternative which remains is, to conquer or to die.

"Hence that unexampled unanimity which distinguishes the present season. In other wars we have been a divided people: the effect of our external operations has been, in some measure, weakened by intestine dissention. When peace has returned, the breach has widened; while parties have been formed on the merits of particular men, or of particular measures. These have all disappeared; we have buried our mutual animosities in a regard to the common safety. The sentiment of self-preservation, the first law which nature has impressed, has absorbed every other feeling; and the fire of liberty has melted down the discordant sentiments and minds of the British empire into one mass, and propelled them in the same direction. Partial interests and feelings are suspended, the spirits of the body are collected at the heart, and we are awaiting with anxiety, but without dismay, the discharge of that mighty tempest which hangs upon the skirts of the horizon, and to which the eyes of Europe, and of the world, are turned in silent and awful expectation. While we feel solicitude, let us not betray dejection; nor let us be alarmed at the past successes of our enemy, which are more dangerous to himself than to us, since they have raised him from obscurity to an elevation which has made him giddy, and tempted him to suppose every thing within his power. The intoxication of his success is the omen of his fall. What, though he has carried the flames of war throughout Europe, and *gathered as a nest the riches of the nations, while none peeped, nor muttered, nor moved the wing*; he has yet to try his fortune in another field; he has yet to contend on a soil filled with the monuments of freedom, enriched with the blood of its defenders; with a people who, animated with one soul, and inflamed with one zeal, for their laws and for their prince, are armed in defence of all they hold dear or venerable; their wives, their parents, their children, the sanctuary of God, and the sepulchre of their fathers. We will not suppose there is one who will be deterred from exerting himself in such a cause, by a pusillanimous regard to his safety, when he reflects that he has already lived too long who has survived the ruin of his country; and that he who can enjoy life after such an event, deserves not to have lived at all. It will suffice us, if our mortal existence, which is at most but a span, be coextended with that of the nation which gave us birth. We will gladly quit the scene, with all that is noble and august, innocent and holy; and instead of wishing to survive the oppression of weakness, the violation of beauty, and the extinction of every thing on which the heart can repose, welcome the shades which will hide from our view such horrors.

"From the most fixed principles of human nature, as well as from the examples of all history, we may be certain, the conquest of this country, should it be permitted to take place, will not terminate in any ordinary catastrophe, in any much less calamitous than utter extermination. Our present elevation will be the exact measure of our future depression, as it will measure the fears and jealousies of those who subdue us. While the smallest vestige remains of our former greatness, while any trace or memorial exists of our having been once a flourishing and independent empire, while the nation breathes, they will be afraid of its recovering its strength, and never think themselves secure of their conquest till our navy is consumed, our wealth dissipated, our commerce extinguished, every liberal institution abolished, our nobles extirpated; whatever in rank, character, and talents, gives distinction in society, called out and destroyed, and the refuse which remains, swept together in a putrifying heap by the besom of destruction. The enemy will not need to proclaim his triumph; it will be felt in the more expressive silence of extended desolation.

"Recollect for a moment his invasion of Egypt, a country which had never given him the slightest provocation; a country so remote from the theatre of his crimes, that it probably did not know there was such a man in existence; (happy ignorance, could it have lasted!) but while he was looking around him, like a vulture, perched on an eminence, for objects on which he might gratify his insatiable thirst for rapine, he no sooner beheld the defenceless condition of that unhappy country, than he darted upon it in a moment. In vain did it struggle, flap its wings, and rend the air with its shrieks: the cruel enemy, deaf to its cries, had infixed his talons, and was busy in sucking its blood, when the interference of a superior power forced him to relinquish his prey, and betake himself to flight. Will that vulture, think you, ever forget his disappointment on that occasion, or the numerous wounds, blows, and concussions, he received in a ten years struggle? It is impossible. It were folly to expect it. He meditates, no doubt, the deepest revenge. He who saw nothing in the simple manners and bland liberties of the Swiss to engage his forbearance; nothing in proclaiming himself a Mahometan, to revolt his conscience; nothing in the condition of defenceless prisoners to excite his pity, nor in that of the companions of his warfare, sick and wounded in a foreign land, to prevent him from dispatching them by poison, will treat in a manner worthy of the impiety and inhumanity of his character, a nation which he naturally dislikes as being free, dreads as the rivals of his power, and abhors as the authors of his disgrace.

"Though these are undoubted truths, and ought to be seriously considered, yet I would rather choose to appeal to sentiments more elevated than such topics can inspire. To form an adequate idea of the duties of this crisis, it will be necessary to raise your minds to a level with our station, to extend your views to a distant futurity, and to consequences the most certain, though most remote. By a series of criminal enterprizes, by the success of guilty ambition, the liberties of Europe have been gradually extinguished: the subjugation of Holland, Switzerland, and the free towns of Germany, has completed that catastrophe; and we are the only people in the eastern hemisphere, who are in possession of equal laws and a free constitution. Freedom, driven from every spot on the continent, has sought an asylum in a country which she always chose for her favourite abode: but she is pursued even here, and threatened with destruction. The inundation of lawless power, after covering the whole earth, threatens to follow us here; and we are most exactly, most critically placed in the only aperture where it can be successfully repelled; in the Thermopylæ of the universe. As far as the interests of freedom are concerned, the most important by far of sublunary interests, you, my countrymen, stand in the capacity of the federal representatives of the human race; for

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in you it is to determine (under GOD) in what condition the latest posterity shall be born; their fortunes are entrusted to your hand, and on your conduct, at this moment, depends the colour and complexion of their destiny. If liberty, after being extinguished on the continent, is suffered to expire here, whence is it ever to emerge in the midst of that thick night that will invest it? It remains with you, then, to decide, whether that freedom, at whose voice the kingdoms of Europe awoke from the sleep of ages, to run a career of virtuous emulation in every thing great and good: the freedom which dispelled the mists of superstition, and invited the nations to behold their God; whose magic touch kindled the rays of genius, the enthusiasm of poetry, and the flame of eloquence; the freedom which poured into our lap opulence and arts, and embellished life with innumerable institutions and improvements, till it became a theatre of wonders; it is for you to decide whether this freedom shall yet survive, or be covered with a funeral pall and wrapt in eternal gloom. It is not necessary to await your determination. In the solicitude you feel to approve yourselves worthy of such a trust, every thought of what is afflicting in warfare, every apprehension of danger must vanish, and you are impatient to mingle in the battle of the civilized world. Go, then, ye defenders of your country, accompanied with every auspicious omen; advance with alacrity into the field, where God himself musters the hosts to war. Religion is too much interested in your success not to lend you her aid. She will shed over this enterprize her selectest influence. While you are engaged in the field, many will repair to the closet, many to the sanctuary; the faithful of every name will employ that prayer which has power with God; the feeble hands which are unequal to any other weapon, will grasp the sword of the spirit; and from myriads of humble and contrite hearts, the voice of intercession, supplication, and weeping, will mingle in its ascent to heaven with the shouts of battle and the shock of arms.

"While you have every thing to fear from the success of the enemy, you have every means of preventing that success; so that it is next to impossible for victory not to crown your exertions. The extent of your resources, under God, are equal to the justice of your cause. But should Providence determine otherwise, should you fall in the struggle, should the nation fall, you will have the satisfaction, (the purest allotted to man,) of having performed your part; virtue will atone for the outrages of fortune, by conducting you to immortality: your names will be enrolled with the most illustrious dead; while posterity, to the end of time, as often as they revolve the events of this period, and they will incessantly revolve them, will turn to you a reverential eye, while they mourn over the freedom which is entombed in your sepulchre. I cannot but imagine the virtuous heroes, legislators, and patriots, of every age and country, are bending from their elevated seats to witness this contest, as if they were incapable, till it be brought to a favourable issue, of enjoying their eternal repose. Enjoy that repose, illustrious immortals! your mantle fell when you ascended; and thousands, inflamed with your spirit, and impatient to tread in your steps, are ready to *swear by Him that sitteth upon the throne, and liveth for ever and ever*, they will protect freedom in her last asylum, and never desert that cause which you sustained by your labours, and cemented with your blood. And thou, sole Ruler among the children of men, to whom the shields of the earth belong, *gird on thy sword, thou Most Mighty:* go forth with our hosts in the day of battle, Impart, in addition to their hereditary valour, that confidence of success which springs from thy presence: pour into their hearts the spirit of departed heroes: inspire them with thine own; and, while led by thine hand, and fighting under thy banners, open thou their eyes to behold in every valley, and in every plain, what the prophet beheld, by the same illumination, chariots of fire and horses of fire. *Then shall the strong man be as tow, and the maker of it as a spark, and they shall both burn together, and none shall quench them.*"

We know nothing either in ancient or modern eloquence to surpass this; and if any man read it without the strongest emotions, we do not envy him his feelings. M.

Genus Pinus. Folio. White.

The superb work on the *Genus Pinus* lately published by Aylmer Bourke Lambert, Esq. Vice-President of the Linnæan Society, is a most valuable acquisition to the science of Botany. Mr. Lambert had observed the confusion that unavoidably prevailed in this point, from the want of distinctness of arrangement and accuracy of description, which necessarily rendered our ideas upon the subject imperfect, and was a material obstacle in the way of further improvement. To remedy these defects Mr. Lambert for several years turned his attention particularly to this branch of Botany, consulted the most eminent authors who had written on the *genus pinus*, and by a comparison with each other, arranged and corrected the information which they afforded. He examined specimens of the several species found at Surrey Hill, Kew, and other gardens, and caused figures to be drawn of all of them on a large scale, in the different stages of their growth, which are the most distinct of any we have ever seen. The result of Mr. Lambert's labours has been the work in question, in which the *Genus Pinus* is divided into thirty-two species, each of which is traced through all its known varieties. The accuracy of the plates, and exactness of the description, distinguish these species in a manner that almost precludes the possibility of mistake. Then follows a description of the various climates in which the different species grow naturally, the particular soils where they are originally found, by which is pointed out the soil most suited to the planting and cultivation of each. The situation in which they should be placed whether high or low, and the method of rearing best calculated to bring them to the greatest perfection are also described.

The *Pinus Silvestris*, or Scotch fir, Mr. Lambert observes, is the most generally cultivated in our gardens, though very far from being the most beautiful or useful, which he thinks must proceed either from ignorance of the method of cultivating the other species with success, or from not knowing their value. Having obviated the first difficulty by describing the method of cultivation, he proceeds to consider the value of the deal-boards acquired from the different species, which is done by inserting a letter of communication on this point from a person who had attended to the subject. This, he observes, he considered as an object of no small national importance. That the work might be still more complete, he applied to an eminent physician who at the author's request has described the substances obtained from this *genus*, together with the various uses to which they may be applied, especially their distinguished utility and importance in the science of medicine. Upon the whole, those who know how essentially distinctness of description, and

accuracy of arrangement contribute to facilitate the acquisition of any branch of knowledge, and to pave the way for further improvement, must be sensible of the value of a work which unites both in a very high degree. To the planter, it will be an object of importance; as it describes the soils most suited to each species, and the proper method of cultivation, whilst the usefulness of many of the substances derived from the *Genus Pinus*, in the department of medicine, must render the work in question, an acquisition of no common value to the medical profession. The price of the book is 10*l*. 10*s*. There is also another copy coloured in a most superb style, which is sold for 25 guineas. H.

Testacea Britannica, or Natural History of British Shells, Marine, Land, and Fresh Water, including the most Minute, systematically arranged, and embellished with Figures. By George Montagu, *F. L. S. 2 vols. in one. 4to.* White.

The study of Natural History in all its branches has of late years been prosecuted with peculiar ardour and success. Linnæus, the Newton of this science, did not perhaps oblige the world so much by his own extensive and important discoveries, as by his lucid and comprehensive arrangement, which removed the grand obstacle to improvement out of the way of future naturalists. That great master having reduced the chaos into order, established a sun in the middle, by the light of whose rays, his successors were enabled with comparative facility, to explore the recesses of the natural world. Conchology, or the history of shells, appears to be that part of the science which has least attracted the attention of Linnæus, as well as of subsequent naturalists. Shells being considered merely as the external covering or exuviæ of animals, were deemed less worthy of attention; while the silly prejudices of an ignorant world contributed by senseless ridicule to discourage the investigation of this as well as other minute branches of the science. But in the progress of improvement conchology has lately been cultivated with a great deal of assiduity by several eminent naturalists. Many celebrated men of our own country applied themselves to the investigation of indigenous conchology, where a vast field was opened by the discoveries of the microscope. Da Costa, Lister, Walker, Dale, Pennant, Pulteney, Donovan, Ellis, and others, turned their attention to the study of the conchology of Great Britain, some examining different parts of the coast, others the whole island. But the subject from its nature was, and still is involved in considerable obscurity, and this must be considered perhaps as the most imperfect branch of natural history. But though much confessedly remains to be done, the work under consideration has thrown a great deal of light upon the conchology of our island, both in point of arrangement and new discoveries. Mr. Montagu has laboured with the most persevering assiduity in his arduous and intricate undertaking, as will be evident when it is known, that he himself actually collected from different parts of the coast, nearly the whole of the vast number of species of shells described in his book, which amount to no less than 470. This, as the author observes, is more than treble the number described by Da Costa, who had collected more of the British shells than any other writer, till the time of Mr. Montagu's publication. He has adopted the Linnæan system of arrangement, and distinguished the different *genera* by the form and structure of the shells, as the best method that has been hitherto discovered. The attempt to arrange them according to the different animals by which they are inhabited, can scarcely be expected ever to succeed: partly from the difficulty of finding the shells in a fresh state, and partly because the same animal often inhabits different sorts of shells. The division of the shells is as follows:—The whole are divided into two parts, including those divisions. The first part contains the two first divisions and part of the third. The first division is formed of the multivalve shells, the second, of the bivalve, and the third of the univalve shells. This last division includes some of the first part; and, with one or two exceptions, the whole of the second—Each of these divisions includes several *genera*, amounting in all to the number of six and thirty, each of which contains several different species, making in all, about four hundred and seventy species of shells. The following are the names and order of the several *genera*:—

PART I.

Division 1.—Multivalve Shells.

	Genera.	*Species.*	*Animal inhabiting them.*
1	Chiton	7	A Doris
2	Balanus	10	A Triton
3	Lepas	5	Idem
4	Pholas	5	Ascidia.

Division 2.—Bivalve Shells.

5	Mya	12	Ascidia.
6	Solen	12	Idem
7	Tellina	19	Tethys
8	Cardium	17	Idem
9	Mactra	11	Idem
10	Donax	6	Idem.
11	Venus	22	Idem.
12	Chama	1	Idem
13	Arca	5	Idem
14	Pecten	9	Idem
15	Ostrea	2	Idem.
16	Anomia	4	
17	Mytilus	16	Ascidias
18	Pinna	3	Idem

Division 3.—Univalve Shells.

19	Nautilus	16	
20	Cypræa	4	Limax.
21	Bulla	18	Idem
22	Voluta	6	Idem
23	Brucinum	17	Idem.
24	Strombus	2	Idem.
25	Murex	20	Idem.
26	Trochus	12	Idem.

PART II.

27	Turbo	72	Idem.
28	Helix	68	Idem
29	Nerita	6	Idem.
30	Haliotis	1	Idem.
31	Patella	13	Idem
32	Dentalium	6	Terrebella.
33	Serpula	15	Idem.
34	Vermiculum	16	Idem
35	Teredo	1	Idem
36	Sabella	12	Amphytrite, and others.

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All the animals as yet discovered that inhabit these different *genera* of shells, are only nine—viz. the Doris, Triton, Ascidia, Tethys, Limax, Spio, Amphytrite, Terebella, and Nereis. A short description of each of these animals is given, and the generic characters of the shells are described with as much distinctness and precision as the nature of the subject would admit. Several figures are also subjoined to the work which appear to be accurate. The author makes an apology because these are not coloured, which appeared to us unnecessary, as accuracy of delineation is more requisite in such a subject than beauty of colouring. As Mr. Montagu has examined all the most celebrated writers on British Conchology, and availed himself of their labours, the present work may be considered as containing what is most valuable in all these writers; and considering the vast number of new discoveries made by the author himself, this may be regarded as the most complete view of the British Testacea that at present exists. The style is simple and perspicuous, and such only is the sort of style which can be expected, or even endured in a work of this kind. Upon the whole, we think that the present work is a most valuable acquisition to conchological science, and we have a sanguine expectation that the success of Mr. Montagu, will stimulate others to apply themselves to the discovery of shells, so that this branch of Natural History may in a short time attain a considerable degree of perfection. H.

History of the French Consulate under Napoleon Bonaparte, being an authentic Narrative of his Administration, including a Sketch of his Life, until the renewal of Hostilities in 1803. *By* M. Barre. 1 *vol.* 8vo. *Hurst.*

A work which purports to be a history of the life and administration of a character who has played so remarkable a part on the stage of the modern world, is well calculated to excite general attention, especially in this country, whose political situation is so materially affected by the influence of that character. From a native of France (as we suppose the author to be) who was an eye-witness to many of the facts related, who has but a few months ago arrived in England, and who brought over many valuable documents upon which his narrative is grounded, we expected a close, distinct, explicit, and regular view of those topics, which lie loosely scattered among the pages of various writers, together with an account of many interesting facts which had before escaped observation. But impartiality obliges us to confess that our expectations were most grievously disappointed. The author has neither brought any new facts to light, nor placed those already known, in a more luminous point of view. His narrative which he has chosen to dignify with the name of a history, is in truth, nothing else than a dry, irregular detail of facts and anecdotes already notorious, relating to Bonaparte, and those, who, in the course of his eventful progress through the revolution till his establishment on the throne of France, were by any tie connected with him. On some alledged facts which, from the singular atrocity of their nature, have occasioned no small sensation, we mean the massacre of the Turks at Jaffa, by order of the First Consul, and his poisoning the sick of his own army, we eagerly anticipated some additional information tending either to confirm or refute these charges. The author however, has done little else on this point, though he had previously told us that he had many friends in the French army, than transcribe the words of Sir Robert Wilson and Doctor Wittman. These might indeed, when joined with many collateral circumstances, be considered as rendering any further proof unnecessary, were not the mind almost irresistibly disposed to be sceptical with regard to atrocities from the contemplation of which human nature turns with horror. From a person who had such opportunities of information, one would naturally look for some proof respecting the murder of Bonnier and Roberjot, the French plenipotentiaries at the congress of Rastadt, though this fact was not, from its nature, so open and capable of proof as those to which we have above referred. Every circumstance and consideration seem to fix the suspicion of that refined piece of wickedness upon the Directory. To add to these suspicions nothing is mentioned by our author, except that a letter was published by the widow of Roberjot, expressly charging Jéan Debry with the murder of her husband and his colleague, to which no answer was ever returned. M. Barré observes, that it will be easily perceived that he is no party writer. We could not avoid, however, perceiving the direct contrary from almost every page of his book. We are sensible that it must be difficult for a patriotic mind to restrain its feelings of indignation in recording the transactions of the enslaver of his country and the murderer of his countrymen. But he ought to have recollected that the ear must be disgusted and offended with the constant and invariable repetition of the epithets of "execrable villain," "Corsican scoundrel" "atrocious murderer" "infamous assassin" &c. &c. which, though no doubt intended to excite the just detestation of mankind against the guilty usurper, must defeat their own object, when injudiciously employed. The Chief Consul is moreover represented as so insatiate in his thirst of blood, that the minutest of his actions are directed by a love of murder and assassination, and that it is with murderers and assassins alone, that he delights to associate. Whoever has read of a Nero or a Caligula, will scarcely venture to affirm, that men cannot exist who may be wicked from a pure love of wickedness, but this appears evident, that Bonaparte, whether equally sanguinary or not, is much more cunning than either Nero or Caligula, and that his situation, if not his disposition, must force him to restrain his bloodthirsty propensity, so far as in some measure to act as if his conduct was the result of a more amiable principle. At any rate, the author's indignation against the First Consul, transports him beyond all bounds of reason, and often causes him to debase the dignity of his history or narrative, by the adoption of a style not unlike that of the *placards* which were lately stuck up on every wall, to rouse the resentment of the rabble. We must however in justice observe, that this might in a great measure be owing to the necessity under which he laboured, of writing in a language with which he may not be particularly acquainted.

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Indeed his deficiency in this respect appears in almost every sentence, but on that point, being a foreigner, he has an undoubted claim to the indulgence both of the critic and the reader. As a specimen of the author's style, and his opinion of the stability of Bonaparte's government, we beg leave to quote his own conclusion of his narrative. "Here must end for the present the faithful and authentic narrative of the boasted administration of a *notorious impostor*, of a *sanguinary wretch*, of a *ferocious Jacobin*, and of an *insolent foreigner*, whom the mixed faction of unprincipled jugglers and debased characters, of assassins and victims, has contrived to raise and support upon speculation. Yet in spite of the mixed faction, the government of Bonaparte stands upon a sandy foundation. Whether the Bourbon Princes will shew themselves or not, the Corsican upstart must speedily and unavoidably meet his too-well merited fate. But by the happy restoration of the legitimate government, all commotions would be at an end. Until such an event takes place, France will continue to be the prey and sport of rapacious adventurers? and neither Europe nor the world can be sure of peace and tranquillity. The system of oppression which prevails now in France, is too violent to be lasting, and the mere recollection that the chief oppressor is an obscure foreigner, and a base deserter, *illustrious* for his nefarious crimes, must necessarily rouse the French party against the odious Corsican and his worthy adherents. But without the restoration of the legitimate government, the downfal and destruction of Bonaparte will be followed by new commotions, and there will be no possibility of a solid peace. Still the French Princes must not think of entering France with foreign troops. The French wish for their return, but they will never suffer the interference of foreign forces. As to the means of bringing about the much wished for restoration, it would be improper to mention them in a work of this nature. Suffice it to say, that these means are nearly in the power of the Bourbon Princes themselves. It is however highly important to observe that the inconsiderate zeal of certain writers, far from being calculated to promote and to accelerate the happy restoration, is only fit to create new obstacles to it. Their views may be good; but they do not seem to possess any real knowledge of the present state of affairs in France. May the French seriously reflect on their present circumstances and situation, and unite in a common cause to put an end to them."

Upon the whole, the circumstances of the author may be an apology with the public, for the evident defects of this work, in point of style and accuracy of language. But they would form no apology for us in neglecting to point out these defects. Let it also in justice to the author be observed, that the ardour of his patriotism, the acuteness with which he seems to feel the unhappy situation of his own country, and the attachment and gratitude with which he appears to be animated towards that people among whom he found safety and protection, must form a powerful claim to the indulgence and patronage of the British reader.

D.

The Cave of Cozenza, a Romance of the 18th Century. Altered from the Italian. By Eliza Nugent Bromley, *Author of Laura and Augustus. 2 vols. 12mo. Robinsons.*

The fable of this romance, is as follows:—Fitzjames, an English baron, with an excellent wife and several children, on his return home from an embassy to the court of Vienna, meets at an inn with a lady, "whose countenance, to use the pointed and emphatical language of our fair authoress, was expressive of the most sublime emotions." Whatever opinion the world may form of our penetration, we must fairly confess, that at first we were at a loss to comprehend the above lofty expressions; but, however, as we thought with no small sagacity, conjectured, that they might mean, a lady of distinguished virtue and excellence. But our inward vanity at our own ingenuity, was most miserably mortified, when it appeared, that this lady of "sublime emotion" was neither more nor less than a common vagrant and strumpet, who was at that moment spreading her lures to catch the baron as her prey. "The sublimity of her emotions," had such an effect upon him, that committing his wife and children to the care of providence, he followed her to Nicastro, and lavished his fortune in satisfying her extravagance and caprices, but at last having discovered her infidelity, he resolves to leave her. The lady, whose emotions of anger were roused at this treatment, contrives a scheme to obtain possession of money to the amount of 10,000*l.* which she knew the baron had at his banker's. This scheme, which was no other than to immure him alive in the bowels of the earth, is put in execution by means of bravoes. The hero is accordingly entombed in the cave of Cosenza, where he is suffered to repent at leisure of his connection with a lady of "sublime emotion." Having continued there several months, he at last finds that the cave is inhabited by robbers, into whose hands he falls. The captain of the banditti turns out to be a man of the strictest honour, integrity, principle, and sentiment. He feeds the hungry, clothes the naked, and never murders travellers, unless they attempt to defend their property. To be sure this excellent man had begun his career by robbing his father, and murdering his tutor: after which he marries a lady for her fortune, suspects her of infidelity, and murders herself, her gallant, and attendant. He afterwards by mistake, assassinates his father in his bed, and a woman who was sleeping with him. But what of all this? his father was a tyrant, his tutor a sour fellow, and his wife not sufficiently circumspect in her conduct. With these robbers our hero continues a prisoner for twelve years. At length their fortress being attacked by a Neapolitan army, he is dismissed by his friend the captain, who then blows up the fort, himself, and his whole company with gunpowder. We had almost forgotten to mention that Signiora Rosi, the lady before spoken of, had fallen into the hands of these robbers, and died in the cavern, performing all those strange vagaries of repentance usually exhibited by dying heroines of "sublime emotion." On his return, the hero finds, that a mutual passion exists between his daughter and a nobleman, who was already married to a deserving lady. This nobleman having

made his *Majesty* the confidant of his passion, is sent upon an embassy, a crack-brained lover being peculiarly well calculated to manage the concerns of nations. His wife, however, being informed of his passion, has the politeness to die, in order to make room for her rival, leaving strict injunctions with the parties to delay their marriage no longer than six months from the moment the breath is out of her body. The lover hears of the death of his wife with *unfeigned sorrow*, but being immediately cured of his phrenzy, he is no longer fit to be an ambassador, and is accordingly recalled. The injunctions of his dying wife are duly complied with, and the plot is wound up as usual. Such are the outlines of the story. "Acknowledge reader," observes the fair authoress, speaking of Bonelli the captain of the robbers, "that we have here presented you with no common character." We do most readily acknowledge it, as we question whether a great many characters here drawn, had ever any likeness in heaven, earth, or sea, or any where, except in the prolific imaginations of those fair writers, who, leaving the beaten track of nature, carry their readers through regions where their minds are filled with astonishment at the sight of monsters before unknown and unheard of. Nor is the morality less extraordinary than the characters and incidents. The superiority of those brave fellows, vulgarly denominated robbers, over the plodding, industrious part of mankind is distinctly marked. He who robs his father, murders his tutor, and borrows large sums of money without intention of repaying them, may yet be a man of honour, sentiment, and benevolence. A married man's love for a young girl, is a passion worthy of being confided to his sovereign, and of procuring the lover the honour of being made an ambassador. We viewed with no small "emotion," the names of many of our princes and nobility, with that of the prime minister, among the list of subscribers to this performance; and we congratulate the country, that our great men have at last stepped forward to patronize such *extraordinary* merit. Under the genial influence of their protection, fair authoresses will ransack their imaginations for the wonderful and extraordinary, the grovelling pictures of nature will be left behind, and "sublime emotions" of morality will exalt and adorn the minds of the rising generation, and produce "no common effect" upon remote posterity. D.

List of New Publications from Decr. 16, to 31, 1803.
Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, &c.

The New Annual Register, or General Repository of History, Politics and Literature, for the year 1802. 8vo. (*) 15*s.*

THEOLOGY.

A Sermon preached on the last Fast-Day; at the Parish Church of Hatton, Warwickshire. By Samuel Parr, L.L.D. (*) 2*s.*

Elements of Religion, containing a Simple Deduction of Christianity, from its Source to its Present circumstances; in a Series of Lesters, to a Young Lady. By Mrs. Marriott, 4 vols. 12mo. (*) 18*s.*

A Sermon preached on the Fast-Day, Oct. 19, 1803, at Allhallows, Barking. By the Rev. Henry White, A.M. 2*s.*

Proofs of Holy Writ; or England's Triumph over Bonaparte and his Armada, foretold in express terms seventeen hundred years ago. 6*d.*

The object of this small pamphlet is to shew that the Beast mentioned in the Revelations is no other than *Bonaparte*. The resemblance is traced in a variety of instances, nor has the remark been forgotten that the ten horns of the Beast are strikingly applicable to the Corsican chief both on account of his power, and his being a *cuckold*. From this last, and similar observations, we were at first disposed to think that this might be intended as a silly attack upon the Scriptures, but upon perusing the subsequent part of the pamphlet, we found reason to alter this opinion. Allowing therefore that the whole is well intended, we would submit to the author whether the cause of religion may not be injured by rash and injudicious applications of its oracles.

POLITICS.

A View of the Moral State of Society, at the close of the Eighteenth Century; much enlarged, and continued to the commencement of the year 1804, with a Preface addressed particularly to the higher orders. By John Bowles, Esq. (*) 2*s.* 6*d.*

The Safe Result of the Opposite Opinions delivered in the House of Commons, on the Subject of the Volunteer Establishment, 9th Dec. 1803. 1*s.*

Some general observations are made on the Debate quoted in the title. But the pamphlet is chiefly employed in enforcing the propriety of Mr. Pitt's recommendation of a field-officer of experience to every volunteer corps.

A Letter to the British Volunteers. By J. Semple Lisle. 1*s.*

MEDICINE.

John Gottlieb Walter's Plates of the Thoracic and Abdominal Nerves, reduced from the Original, as published by order of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin; accompanied by coloured explanations and a description of the Par Vagum, Great Sympathetic and Phrenic Nerves, 4to. 18*s.*

NOVELS.

A Peep at the World; or the Children of Providence. A Novel. By Harvey Sinclair, 3 vols. 12mo. 12*s.*

The history of a beggar boy picked up in the street by a retired citizen, who gives him a genteel education. His benefactor dies and he is again left destitute, and obliged to live upon his wits, at which period he meets almost the only character marked with any strength in the whole book. viz. *Frederic Octavius Augustus Adolphus Belmont Snag*, a modern blood. He afterwards is second in a duel and obliged to fly to a retreat, where he meets a poor girl whom he marries. This girl is afterwards discovered to be the daughter of his benefactor, acquires a large fortune, and all parties are as usual made happy or miserable according to their deserts, with true poetical justice.

This work seems to have been composed without care or much taste. It is extremely deficient in point of interest, and of that indifferent sort that may be said neither to deserve praise nor blame. As an apology for it, the author pleads that his object was *profit*, and refers the reader to the quotation

"Quid non mortalia pectora cogis,
"Auri sacra fames?"

Village Anecdotes, or the Journal of a Year, from Sophia to Edward, with Original Poems. By Mrs. Le Noir, 3 vols. 12mo. 12*s.*

This Journal, in the form of letters, is supposed to be

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written to a sea-officer by his wife, who had retired to the country upon her husband's departure for a foreign service in prosecution of the duties of his profession. The manners of a country village are here pourtrayed with the strongest characteristics of truth and nature, forming a striking contrast to that sickly sentimental *cant*, or *German froth*, which most of our modern novelists and dramatists have taken into their heads to ascribe to our English peasantry, most falsely and unnaturally. The style is pure and simple, suited to the subject, which is a description of the "homely joys, griefs, virtues, vices, and peculiar turn of mind of the artless villager," and the whole is executed in a manner that does high honour to the author's taste and discrimination. This is one of the few works of this class of which the reader, after perusing these anecdotes and shutting the book, may say "I am the better for it."

Fate of Sprong Castle. By Maria Vanzee, 12mo. 4*s*.

This tale is a narrative of some remarkable passages in the life of an English officer, who is imprisoned in Germany, by a German Prince whom he had wounded in a duel. It is told in a neat and even nervous style, and the incidents succeed each other in a manner calculated to keep the interest and attention alive, so as to afford no small entertainment.

Hell upon Earth, 2 vols. 12mo. 8*s*.

The Mother and Daughter, a Pathetic Tale. By Maria Julia Young. 3 vols. 10*s*. 6*d*.

MISCELLANIES.

Academic Correspondence, on the Present State and Cultivation of the Arts of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture, published by desire of the Academy. By Prince Hoare, Secretary for Foreign Correspondence, 4to. 3*s*. 6*d*. or on fine paper, 5*s*. (*)

Letters to a Young Lady, on a course of English Poetry. By J. Aikin, M.D. 12mo. (*) 4*s*.

A Practical Grammar of the Antient Gaelc; or Language of the Isle of Man, usually called Manks. By the Rev. John Kelly, L.L.D. 4to. 6*s*.

This professes to be only a Practical Grammar, and so far it is well executed, but we cannot help regretting that the language was not traced by the author through its various changes. In these respects it is inferior to the Rev. Mr. Stewart of Moulin's grammar. Mr. Kelly has promised us a dictionary of the Manks soon, but we have been so often amused with promises on that head, that our expectations are not very sanguine. A good dictionary is, however, a very great *desideratum* in Gaelic literature.

The Revolutionary Plutarch, exhibiting the most distinguished Characters, Literary, Military and Political, in the recent Annals of the French Republic; the greater part from the original Information of a Gentleman resident in Paris. To which, as an Appendix, is reprinted entire, the celebrated Pamphlet of "Killing no Murder," 2 vols. 12mo. 12*s*.

The author whom we understand to be an old officer, gives in these volumes a sketch of the most remarkable passages in the lives of those who, having played a considerable part in the course of the revolution, are now mostly the favourites and relatives of Bonaparte. He had an opportunity of being personally acquainted with many of the characters whom he describes, whose lives with a few exceptions exhibit only a detail of crimes at which human nature revolts. Most of these are already known to the public, but the criminals are here brought more immediately under our view, and held up to the just detestation of mankind. The style is simple and perspicuous; and the work upon the whole is deserving of public patronage.

Tales from the Russian of Nicolai Karamsin, 8vo. 6*s*.

These tales we perused with a mixed sensation of pain and pleasure. It is impossible not to be pleased with the *naiveté* and elegance of the style, while at the same time it is equally impossible not to regret the many exceptionable passages that are to be found in the work. The first tale is the story of a cottage girl, who falls in love with a young nobleman. He seduces her, and she, having deliberately sent a purse to her mother, which she had just received from the seducer, plunges into the river, and dies like a *heroine*. In the third tale, Natalia a young girl with a virtuous education runs away from an aged and indulgent father, with a young man of whom she knew nothing and had scarcely even seen, but she was in love and that was sufficient excuse according to our author, who may speak for himself. "Let the *unfeeling* critic with sarcastic sneers rail at the man *(and well he may)* who dresses immorality in the garb of virtue, but *love* is omnipotent, and the votary who has never transgressed is most happy—but happy by *accident*, for all the philosophy that ever existed is *unable* to vanquish the powers of *love* or restrain its *natural frailty!!!*" In other words whenever silly girls take it into their heads that they are in *love*, they are to follow their inclinations whether proper or not, because it would be in vain to resist, for love is *omnipotent!!* Many a wretched *Lais* has bitterly repented her folly in listening to such sentiments as these. The author is a man of *feeling* and *sensibility*, and it will readily be believed therefore that the descriptions of love scenes are such as no prudent parent would wish to fall into the hands of his child. These objections apply principally to two of the tales, *Lisa* and *Natalia*; the other two are deserving of high praise. In Julia we are let down from the *altitudes* of love into the regions of *common-sense*, and though we think the French critic under-rated the merits of *Marmontel* when he said this tale was equal to any of his, yet it is certainly exquisitely told. But the short and neat story of *Flor-Silin* we think the best, in which the author relates the generous acts of a simple rustic whose heart *overflowed* with benevolence. Here we are happy to be able to yield unqualified praise, while we cannot help again expressing our regret that a work whose execution we admire, should contain sentiments which we think *dangerous*.

Martial Biography, or Memoirs of the most eminent British Military characters who have distinguished themselves under the English Standard, by their splendid achievements in the Field of Mars, a pocket vol. 7*s*.

The most distinguished military men whose lives form the subject of this Biographical Sketch are, General Abercromby, the Duke of Marlborough, Marquis Cornwallis, Oliver Cromwell, Lord Heathfield, better known by the name of General Elliott, Duke of York, Colonel Gardiner, Marquis of Granby, Earl Moira, General Tarleton, Duke of Cumberland, and General Wolfe. Of each of these a portrait is prefixed. At the end is a Glossary containing an explanation of military terms that may be extremely useful to the Tyro. A more particular account of the battles and sieges, is given, than is usual with the biographers and historians of the present day, and the work upon the whole, considering its size, is uncommonly replete with instruction and entertainment.

Seneca's Morals, by way of Abstract; to which is added a Discourse under the title of an Afterthought. By Sir Roger L'Estrange, Knt. a New Edition. 12mo. 6*s*.

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An Easy Introduction to Mons. Wailly's French Grammar, in Two separate Books. 1st. Scholar's Book; 2d. Instructress's Book, 12mo. bound in red, each 2*s.*

This Introduction to the French Grammar is principally intended for females. It seems well calculated for private and even for self-instruction. The ease with which the fundamental principles of the French language have been acquired by its use in her own school, has induced the authoress to communicate this advantage to the public.

OXFORD CLASSICAL BOOKS.

Actuum Apostolorum et Epistolarum tam Catholicarum quam Paulinarum, Versio Syriaca Philoxeniana, ex Codice M. S. Ridleiano. In Bibl. Coll. Nov. Oxon. Reposito, nunc primum Edita: cum Interpretatione et Annotationibus Josephi White, S. T. P. Ling. Hebraicæ Professoris Regii, Arabicæ Professoris Laudiani, et Ædis Christi Canonici. Tomus Secundus, Epistolas Paulinas Complectens. 1*l.* 5*s.*

Aristotelis Ethicorum Nichomacheorum Libri X. Codicum MSS. Collatione Recogniti, et Notis Illustrati, a Gulielmo Wilkinson, A. M. E. Coll. Reginæ. Editio Altera, 8vo. price 11*s.* large paper small paper. 6*s.* 6*d.*

M. Tullii Ciceronis de Officiis ad Marcum Filium Libri Tres, Notis Illustravit, et tum MSS. ope, tum conjectura emendavit Zacharias Pearce, S.T.P. Decanus Wintoniensis. In usum Juventutis, 12mo. 3*s.*

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ORIGINAL POETRY.

ODE ON THE GENIUS OF HOMER.

Thou to whose ample Soul was given
The first, the noblest boon of Heaven,
Bard divine! who, blind and old,
To the deep Lyre attun'd thy sacred Song:
I hear thee now the Tale unfold
That wrapt in mute suspense the Grecian throng;
I see them pant, and gasp for breath,
And half unsheath the Sword of Death:
Near and more near they press around,
And catch with fierce delight the lofty sound.
Forth issuing from the *Scean* Gate
For ten long years delaying Fate
The black Battalions rise;
They hear their shouts, their loud alarms,
Again the World is bright in arms
Again! again! a Woman is the Prize!
They tread no more on Attic Ground,
They think no more of fallen Troy,
They see her with her Glory crown'd
And burn with fury to destroy;
'Gainst *Hector's* self in thought advance
Raise the broad shield, and grasp the quivering lance;
Such was the power of Homer's Song;
Resistless still his numbers flow
As Alpine Torrents forced along
Swelled by the melting of the Winter's snow.

R. W.

SIMONIDES.

When the great master all his art combin'd
To paint the tumults of Medea's mind,
Her inward struggles swelling into view
Beneath the magic of his pencil grew.
Behold the vivid lines distinctly glow,
Stamp'd with a double character of woe.
Dark is the frown that clouds her gathered brow,
But bright the tear that trickles from below;
Parental pity in that glist'ning tear,
In that black frown a thousand threats appear.
Each look is pregnant with an offspring's fate,
Now life in love, now death is doomed in hate.
But here the skilful artist drew a veil
O'er the dire sequel of the dreadful tale;
Else had we seen a parent's hand imbrued,
Suffice the horrid thought!—in filial blood.
His faultering touch confessed a finer soul,
Nor stain'd the canvass with a deed so foul.

S.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Æolian Harp.

Mr. Editor,

In your Review of my little work, entitled "Clifton Grove," you object to the appellation of Æolian Harp, as applied to the instrument invented by Kircher, and revived by Mr. Oswald, which is played by the wind.

I have neither seen, nor have I the opportunity of seeing the Critical Review, which you mention; I cannot, therefore, be a judge of the grounds of the Reviewer's objection to this adjunct, thus applied: but this I think is obvious, that the critic who could for a moment imagine that Gray's initial line "Awake! Æolian lyre awake!" alluded, not to the *Grecian* lyre, but to that of Æolus, would not impress a man of discernment with a very favourable idea of his sagacity.

I must certainly submit my judgment to yours on this point; but I assure you I have not been able to penetrate into the impropriety of this term, in this sense: and indeed I have sufficient authority for my use of it in Dr. Rees's Cyclopædia now publishing, (vide in Verb.) where "*Æolian Harp*," and "*The Harp of Æolus*," are indiscriminately used.*

* The best writers of antiquity liberally make use of Substantives of quantity with adjectival terminations, as Hor. "*trabs Cypria*," for *trabs Cypri*, and it is not easy to discover why *Æolian* may not with equal propriety be deduced from the deity Æolus as from the province Æolis or Æolia.

Your Correspondent GSSW. has noticed a coincidence between a passage in the Persian poem which he has translated, and Horace's

"Micat inter omnes
Julium Sidus, velut inter ignes
Luna minores."

This idea bears a striking resemblance to a line in a beautiful, and well known Idyllium, ascribed to Bion, where speaking of the evening-star, the poet describes it:

Τοσσον ἀφαυροτερην μιμας, ὁσσον ἐξοχος ἀστρων.

I am, Sir, your obedient Servant,
HENRY KIRKE WHITE.

Nottingham,
Dec. 17, 1803.

In answer to the above observation, we inform Mr. White that the remark of the Reviewer on Gray's Ode is mentioned at large, in Mason's edition of Gray's Letters, and the poet in consequence of it added the following note. "Pindar styles his own poetry Αιολαις μολπαι, Αιολιδες χορδαι, Αιολιδων πνευμα αὐλων. Æolian song, Æolian strings, the breath of the Æolian flute." And in consequence of this, and some other similar misconceptions, he prefixed this motto to the future editions of the Ode:

Φωνᾶντα συνετοισιν ἐς
Αἰ τὸ πᾶν ἑρμηνέων χαλίζει.

From this striking, and, as we apprehend, well known circumstance, we objected to the use of the term *Æolian Harp*, for the well known instrument sounded by the *passing gale*. The *Trabs Cypria*, mentioned in the Note, is exactly a case in point with the harp of Æolis or Æolia and not of Æolus; and though one of the minor critics of the drama, might call the actors *the Thespian throng*, from the person who first acted in a cart, yet from the pen of a classic writer, we should conceive the *Muses* were alluded to. Perhaps the subject is hardly worth a serious controversy. The little poetical piece which occasioned it, does great credit to the author's taste for what is much better than verbal criticism.

Mr. EDITOR,

When I read the extracts in the Literary Journal from the Letters on "Paris as it Was, and As it Is." I suspected some of it to be apocryphal, and that the author, in order to add to the amusement of his readers, had not hesitated to intermingle fiction with his narratives. But an extract in the last Anti-Jacobin Review, has put this beyond a doubt; for the story of Mr. B—— and his *fac simile* concubines, is an absolute fiction, though not of the author's invention. It is taken from a novel called the Gordian Knot written by Mr. and Mrs. Griffiths (the once celebrated Henry and Frances) thirty years ago.

Your's, &c.
DETECTOR.

SCIENCE.

Water Spout of GEYSER* *in Iceland.*

There is not perhaps a spot upon earth where natural *phenomena* are more numerous, grand, and various than in the island of *Iceland*, yet the rigour of its northern climate, its insular situation, and the dangers attending the investigation of the effects of volcanoes and subterraneous fires, have hitherto prevented the examination of its natural curiosities with the minuteness which they deserved. One of the most remarkable of these curiosities and which has always commanded the admiration both of the native and the stranger, is the water spout of *Geyser*, which, with several others of inferior note, is found in the neighbourhood of *Scalholt*, the capital of the Island. Mr. *Olafsen*, a native of Iceland, and Member of the Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen, who lately visited *Geyser* with a scientific friend, has furnished us with the following particulars relative to this singular spring. "At the moment of our arrival at *Geyser*, the water filled the bason, and overflowed on all sides. Immediately after, a subterraneous noise was heard, which was the signal for the rushing of the water. In an instant it began to spout, but at this time rose only to the height of about sixty feet. The spouting ceased suddenly and was frequently renewed at intervals of a few minutes. Its violence diminished gradually, till the bason was entirely empty. In this situation it continued for a moment, but the vapour and heat of the crater (the water is boiling hot) prevented us from seeing the bottom. We contrived however by means of a plummet, to measure the depth of the bason, which we found to be seventy-two feet. The diameter at the orifice was fifty-seven feet, and at or near the bottom only eighteen, so that it appeared to contract gradually and terminate in the form of a funnel. We again threw our plummet with the hope of sounding some of the holes that afforded a passage to the water, at first gently and then with violence. No sooner however, had the lead reached the bottom, than a body of boiling water was spouted up from the rock, which fortunately did us no injury. Notwithstanding this disappointment we threw it again, but another spout of water obliged us to retreat with precipitation. Our guide was dreadfully terrified, for it is the opinion of the Icelanders that no man is permitted to examine these mysterious places, because the powerful spirits who reside in them will punish the rash mortal who attempts to dive into their secrets. But it is evident that the agitation of the air in the little openings at the bottom must derange the ordinary course of the water always ready to shoot up the moment the air is displaced. We several times renewed our attempts to find with the plummet the small openings at the bottom, but in vain. Whether the lead was too large, the holes had a crooked direction, or from whatever other cause it proceeded, we were unable to decide.

After the spoutings of which we have spoken, and

* Geyser, in the Icelandic language signifies an enraged madman.

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those occasioned by our sounding lead removing the air which obstructed the passage of the water, the *Geyser* continued tranquil during the whole night: the water rose gradually and the bason was not full till four o'clock in the morning. We continued in the neighbourhood that we might have an opportunity of witnessing the force of the spout, to ascertain which we had thrown several flags and other stones into the bason.

At length the spoutings were announced by a hollow noise under our feet like the reports of a cannon heard at a distance. Five reports succeeded each other, the second louder than the first, the third than the second and so on, as if the cannon was gradually approaching. We at the same time felt the earth shake, as if about to swell and burst. Immediately upon the sixth report, the first spout was thrown, which rose to a great height, and after that, every report was the signal for a new spout, in each of which the water was thrown to a greater height than in the preceding. The flags and stones which we had thrown into the bason, were darted up in a thousand pieces, even to a greater height than the pillars of water which terminated always in a point. We had taken the precaution to station ourselves on the side from whence the wind blew, that we might not be incommoded by the thick smoke which would have obstructed our view on the other side. From the commencement we had observed that at every spout, the water which was in the bason was raised, and by this motion overflowed on all sides of the crater, but in a greater degree on the North side, where the water fell into a little valley and formed a rivulet which at a considerable distance from the fountain-head, preserves such a degree of heat, that the feet of those animals who may inadvertently pass through it are often severely burnt.

These spoutings of the *Geyser* which we witnessed, were of the strongest and most violent nature. Judging by the eye, the highest spouts did not altogether equal the height of the mountain of *Langafell*, which stands close to the *Geyser*. The elevation of this mountain is about seventy fathoms, so that the height of the highest spouts may be estimated at about sixty fathoms. The surrounding inhabitants who are in the habit of observing the *Geyser*, affirm however, that they have often seen the water thrown up to the full height of the summit of the mountain, and that when this happens, they always apprehend that rainy and stormy weather will follow. The spoutings continued in all about ten minutes, and there was an interval of three seconds between every subterraneous report by which the spoutings were announced: consequently the total number at this time was about two hundred.

Its *Nature and Quality*. With respect to the source of the *Geyser*, whether the water which it spouts up, comes from the neighbouring mountains or immediately from the sea, nothing is known with certainty. The former opinion is the most ancient, and perhaps the most rational, as the variations of the spoutings have no fixed period. There is a tradition, that before the present spring existed, there were other water-spouts in the neighbourhood, called *Geyser* on account of their singular violence, but that an earthquake destroyed these, and at the same time produced the water-spout now known by that name. Without undertaking to answer for the authenticity of this tradition, it may at least be observed that it infers nothing incompatible with the nature of hot-springs in Iceland, which frequently change the situation of their vents. If the tradition could be relied upon, one might conclude from this circumstance, that there is a subterraneous sea under the cantons, about the mountain of *Langafell* from which all the springs are derived, and the excessive heat which it manifests, would seem to prove that this territory incloses a subterraneous fire which is generated in its bowels. This last opinion is corroborated by the testimony of several persons who affirm that they have often observed the *Geyser* spout up flames and water at the same time.

The hot water of *Geyser* has also the property of petrifying, which may be ascertained from the circumstance that the stones found a little below the crater are filled with stalks of plants and little pieces of wood entirely transformed into a hard and pale coloured stone. Even in the rock itself from which the spring issues, there are found petrified stalks of plants, and close by it, different sorts of wood, bones of sheep and the dung of horses, transformed into a hard and whitish stone. In a petrifaction of some small leaves of the birch tree, found in this place, the fibres were distinctly visible.

There are several water-spouts of inferior note near the spring of *Geyser*, some of which have many remarkable properties. One of these called *Seyder*, has been denominated *a dry spring*, because its crater or tunnel contains no water, but emits a thick smoke of which the heat is so intense, that the neighbours employ it to dress their food, either milk or fish. Victuals according to the assertion of the inhabitants, are dressed here with as much facility as in the hot waters of the other springs, and they contract no strange or smoky taste during the process. A singular fact has been also observed with respect to two other hot-wells in the neighbourhood of *Geyser*, called *Akrahver*. In throwing the sounding lead into one of them to measure its depth, the water instantly sunk a foot and a quarter, while in the other upon the same thing being repeated, the water overflowed on all sides.

These wells, together with several others have been rendered famous by the assertions of several people, who affirmed that they saw birds swimming in them, of the form and size of a mallard, the body of a brown colour, except that there was a white ring very visible round the eye. Those who are still alive and pretend to have seen these birds, say that they not only swim, but also dive in the boiling water, and that if any person approaches, they continue a long time under the water, and sometimes cannot be seen to emerge at all. It is difficult to give credit to this circumstance though so confidently affirmed by numbers of people now alive, whose assertions are deserving of attention. Their plumage, their legs and bills protected by a callous skin, might endure the boiling water in swimming, but in diving, what is to

become of their eyes, unless we should suppose that they possess some callous substance upon their eyelids which they must always keep shut while under the water? But further, what can be the quality of the blood of these birds? It is well known, that owing to the properties of their blood, sea birds cannot dive, and if the birds here spoken of do really exist, they must be of an amphibious character and the discovery of them will be a grand and interesting novelty in Natural History. But without dwelling any longer on this point, it may be dismissed with the observation that the existence of these birds will be considered as fabulous till discovered and examined by those whose scientific knowledge may preclude the possibility of mistake.

"The degree of heat in all these hot springs is almost always the same. In the water, *Fahrenheit's* thermometer rose to 182 degrees, and out of the water in the smoke or vapour near the surface, to 90 degrees. Several springs however, are so much agitated, that it is impossible to introduce the thermometer into the water. But upon the whole, it appears that the water in the springs of which we have spoken is somewhat hotter than that of the hot springs in the other quarters of Iceland." H.

Trigonometrical Survey of Great Britain.

Our scientific readers will readily recollect, that a Trigonometrical survey of Great Britain was begun in 1784, under the direction of the Royal Society, and has since been continued by order of the Board of Ordnance. This undertaking, which from its magnitude and utility reflects honour on the British government, is at present conducted by Major Mudge. Much important information respecting its progress has already appeared in the volumes of the Philosophical Transactions, and the various memoirs relating to it, have been republished from the Transactions as a distinct work, by Major Mudge and Mr. Isaac Dalby, of the Royal Military College.

Besides the advantages which may evidently be derived from an accurate geographical knowledge of this island, it is well known that men of science regard this survey as affording the most accurate information that has hitherto been obtained respecting the magnitude and figure of the earth. It has been long known that the polar diameter of the earth is less than the equatoreal, and hence, that as the curvature of the terrestrial meridian must increase from the equator to the poles, the absolute lengths of the degrees of latitude, must also increase from the equator to the poles. This conclusion has been found to be true in a general way, for from actual measurements which have been made of arches of the meridian in these seven different places, viz. Peru, the Cape of Good Hope, Pennsylvania, Italy, France, Austria and Lapland, it has been found that a degree measured more or less, according as the country, where the measurement was taken, was situated towards the poles or the equator.

A very remarkable *apparent* deviation from this law, however, has been found to take place in the arch of the meridian in this country which has been measured by Major Mudge; for instead of finding the absolute length of the degrees of the terrestrial meridian passing through England to form an *increasing* series from south to north, his measurements, which have been made with great care, seem to indicate a contrary law, or that they form a *decreasing* series.

We have denominated this curious observation of Major Mudge only an *apparent* deviation from the general law, for we understand that a very ingenious mathematician, who has fully considered the subject, has formed that opinion, and he proposes to shew that, considering the circumstances which must unavoidably affect the measurements, the result is in conformity with the general laws of gravitation.

There is one remarkable consequence which seems to follow from this curious observation of Mr. Mudge, namely that the latitude of no place in Britain has hitherto been *accurately* determined. W.

Regular Polygons which may be inscribed in a Circle.

It is well known to those that have studied mathematics, that the ancient geometricians took a great deal of pains in determining the regular polygons that could be inscribed in a given circle, by the help of straight lines and circles alone, these being the only lines admitted into the elements of that Science. The result of their investigations has been handed down to us in the writings of Euclid; and the fourth book of his Elements in particular, is entirely occupied by this subject. He there shews how to inscribe a regular polygon in a circle, in five cases, viz. when the number of sides is 3, 4, 5, 6, and 15, but from these, by the simple operation of bisecting an arch, it is easy to resolve the problem in innumerable other cases. Thus from the Equilateral Triangle there may be inscribed, besides the hexagon, figures of 12, 24, 48, &c. sides; from the Square, figures of 8, 16, 32, &c. sides; from the Pentagon, figures of 10, 20, 40, &c. sides; and from the Quindecagon, figures of 30, 60, 120, &c. sides; and mathematicians have supposed that besides these no other polygons could be inscribed in a circle by the simple operations of elementary geometry.

Such being the general opinion, it may be considered as a circumstance not a little curious, that a foreign mathematician, M. Gauss, of Brunswick, has announced, in a work called Disquisitiones Arithmeticæ, that besides the cases which we have above enumerated, and which are commonly known, there are an infinity of others, which may be determined by this rule. *Add unity to any number in the geometrical progression* 1, 2, 4, 8, 16, 32, *&c. continued indefinitely, then, if the sum be a prime number, a polygon of that number of sides may be inscribed in a circle, by the operations employed for resolving problems in the elements of geometry.* The four smallest numbers indicated by this formula are 3, 5, 17, 257.

It is well known that the rule holds good when the number of sides of the polygon is 3 or 5, and the celebrated French mathematician Legendre, has lately demonstrated that it must also be true when the number is 17, which is a case entirely new. His investigation depends upon principles which are indeed

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not considered as belonging to elementary geometry, but the construction which he derives from his investigation is as simple and elementary in its nature as those employed for the cases commonly known.

W.

Letter written by Dr. Tilesius, Naturalist to the Russian Expedition of Discovery, to Dr. Stoever, in Hamburgh.

Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe, 25th October, 1803.

"I am just returned from an excursion into the country along the foot of the Peak: at this time of the year it is impossible to reach the summit, nearly half the mountain being covered with ice and snow. My tour has been rather fatiguing, yet I am richly rewarded for my trouble. I have made the most important discoveries and met with animals, which we hitherto mistook for plants, having seen them only in a dried state. I have seen mummies, which are found in caverns near St. Andre, Sensal, and on mount Alabasso, and most probably originate from the ancient inhabitants of this Island. For three days I have been constantly pacing up-hill and down-hill. The banks of the port of Orotrava have furnished me with a greater number of interesting articles, than those of Sensal and Santa Cruz. Most of the new species I have met with, belong to the families of sea-urchins, sea-stars, and polypusses.

"The soil of this island is throughout of volcanic origin, and abounds with an uncommon variety of lava. The Spanish governor of the island, Marquis de Cassicadigal, resides in Santa Cruz; he received us with great kindness, gave us letters of introduction for Orotrava, and shewed us in person his two gardens near Santa Cruz, where we found numerous scarce plants, of which Mr. Resanoff, our ambassador, obtained seeds at his request for the Emperor of Russia. The large botanical garden, laid out in the year 1795, in the vicinity of Orotrava by the Marquis de Nava, who at present resides at Laguna in this island, far exceeded our expectation. The Marquis has in his service a very able gardener, an Englishman of the name of Mc Manus, who with much good nature entertained us a whole morning, with specimens of his skill and industry. He is a good botanist and intimately acquainted with the works of Linnæus. I have made a descriptive catalogue of a variety of new African species, which he has discovered on his frequent botanical perambulations in the interior of the country. In addition to other valuable historical information, I have made a drawing of an obelisk, and copied several inscriptions, which illustrate the history of Teneriffe. On the obelisk are represented the Quanzes, the former inhabitants of the island, in their ancient costume, dressed in hides, their heads encircled with garlands of flowers, and holding a bone (*crus femoris*) in their hand; on the point of the obelisk stands the Santa Maria de Candellera. I have made several drawings of picturesque views, dresses, and productions of the island, and laid down special maps, which shall be elaborated after my return. Most of the curiosities obtained, I have myself collected; but with the productions of the Peak, I was presented by an American Captain, who ascended the mountain in the month of August last.

"We sailed from Falmouth on the 5th October, and arrived here on the 20th. In four days at latest, we intend to set sail for Rio Janeiro in Brazil, whence I will write you another letter."

MANNERS.

—Mores hominum multorum spectavit & urbes. *Horace.*
He travell'd far, and look'd into mankind.

Mr. Editor,

The return of the New-year, which by the way duly brings along with it the anniversary of my birth-day, last week reminded me that my days move on apace. This is indeed a circumstance which I seldom lose sight of for want of hints to assist my recollection. "He's a worthy fellow; I have known him since we were boys;" is a compliment to my virtue which my vanity has frequently been mortified to hear from the fathers of hopeful families. What I can still less bear, is the complaisance of the grown misses, who take me by the hand, and introduce me with the utmost civility to their female friends, as an old acquaintance. When the young women begin to grow civil to an unmarried man, 'tis a shrewd sign they no longer find any pleasure in teazing him.

These hints, however, have from their frequency lost much of their effect: I am often content to imagine that the masters and misses have miscalculated my age, and that the sun and the weather have, before the time, given me the appearance of an old batchelor. But the return of a birth-day and a new-year together, is a hint which cannot be got over in this way: I irresistibly feel that I am a year older since the last Christmas holidays; and by the help of the seven-years' war, am convinced, however unwillingly, that I am now turned of fifty. The certainty of this fact struck me with full force, as my servant drew the window curtains, and let in upon me the first dawn of this new-year. A thousand suitable reflections crowded along with it upon my mind; and I more than once repeated to myself in silence, that the degenerate race of men in our days have not their lives secured even to threescore and ten.

There is nothing at which a man is so much startled, as the idea of himself and his memory being at once swept into the waves of oblivion. I had neither written a book, nor endowed an hospital; and many a hero of a close borough, or the Newgate calendar, might enjoy his due share of fame, twenty years after I was numbered among the things lost on earth. These uneasy thoughts compelled me at length to quit my bed in very bad humour; when the appearance of my friend George Hanger, who at that moment crossed the street before my window, in his long drab coat, with his crab-stick compressing one nostril, instantly revived my spirits by suggesting an expedient, which has become very fashionable of late, for prolonging a man's existence beyond its natural term. Every one has heard of George Hanger's Life written by himself; as also those of Tate Wilkinson, and many other personages of equal importance, both

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male and female, who have lately written their memoirs and published them in their own life-time, perhaps for the same reason that Hume alledges, to prevent the impertinent biographers of future times from being busy with their memories. The temptation of thus acquiring immortality no sooner presented itself than I found it irresistible. All the great events of my life crowded at once upon my mind; and calling in haste for my writing-desk, which I had not looked into for half a year back, on account of the number of unanswered letters it contains, I began as follows.

"My father, who, by much perseverance, and many dexterous pieces of address, had risen to the considerable preferment of Rector to a Welsh parish, was withal a man of ambition. He had early determined to rise in the world, and with this view carefully avoided a low marriage, a snare into which many of his brother curates had fallen; for he looked upon matrimony as an opportunity of making his fortune, thrown into every man's way by nature, and which no wise man would omit. He had therefore ventured, while yet a curate, to aspire to the hand of an heiress, the representative of a most ancient family, and possessing moreover a freehold property of fifty pounds a year at the foot of the mountain Plinlimmon in Wales. His boldness and perseverance triumphed at length over all the obstacles placed between them; and at the mature age of thirty-eight years, Miss ap Morgan allowed my father, who was then become rector of the parish, to lead her to the altar. These two pieces of extraordinary good fortune, happening nearly at the same time, astonished his brethren, some of whom were heard to say that they should not wonder if a prebend's stall were next thrown in his way.

"As I was the only fruit of this marriage, one may conceive that I was brought up with all the distinction due to my mother's blood, and my father's dignities. My nurse, who was herself an ap Morgan, religiously obeyed the injunctions laid upon her, never to thwart me in any thing; and I had passed the first six years of my life, to the great annoyance of the earthen-ware and window-glass, without one reproof or contradiction. At this period, my nurse's gingerbread letters had given me such an inclination to learn my alphabet, that my father proposed I should pay a daily visit to the curate's school in the village; but this scheme was violently over-ruled by my mother, who accused nurse of having laid a plot to ruin my delicate constitution and her hopes; and gingerbread letters were for the future peremptorily banished from the family. As I had never experienced restraint before, I could not submit to it on the present occasion; and by means of one of the maids, I learnt my alphabet much more quickly than I should have done with the assistance of the curate.

"My mother's care of my eyes and health had an equally good effect on the progress of my education; and by means of my father's library being locked against me, I contrived to read almost every book it contained before I was twelve years of age. Those especially printed with a very small type, I studied with uncommon diligence, they being forbidden me in a particular manner. The fondness I then acquired for small types has continued with me through life. My turkey-cased prayer-book is of such a size that I always carry it about with me in my right breeches' pocket as a counterbalance to the card-case in my left. I never admit any thing above a duodecimo into my book-case, which, though it contains the most approved classics of ancient and modern times, does not in size exceed a Macklin's bible.

"My mother's aversion to water, gunpowder, and horses, made me the most expert youth in the country at swimming, shooting, and hunting; and when, in my eighteenth year, I was sent to the University, there were few things to be learnt at the foot of Plinlimmon, which I was not pretty well skilled in; except indeed the heraldry of my ancestors, for with this subject my mother used to entertain me two hours a day, as regularly as dinner was served on the table.

"The forms and regular hours at college would have been insupportable, had I not found that my tutor could be prevailed upon to dispense with my attendance, and to put up with my fee, which I thankfully paid him. I know the Fellows still tell many odd stories of a queer fellow, who thirty years ago, locked himself up in his chambers, and set the heads at defiance: yet I question if any of them retained more Greek and Mathematics than I carried with me when I left college. In truth I wrote several dissertations on the text of Euripides; and have more than once been tempted to propose some new emendations to the Doctor at the cyder-cellar, but was afraid the thing might get wind at the west end of the town.

"The cares of the Proctor to prevent my excursions at forbidden hours, became so troublesome, that I made my escape from college at midnight, and next day found myself at the Blue Boar in Holborn. With the consent of my father and mother, (who expected one day to see me Lord Chancellor) I entered myself of Lincoln's Inn, because I understood there was no other regular ceremony required in the study of the law, but to eat three dinners in each term. This encroachment on my freedom however, proved too great a price for a barrister's wig; and although I could have often helped my Lord Mansfield to a precedent, both in statute and common law, I found, at the end of four years, that two dinners on the two last days were all the proofs of my progress which I could give in any one term.

"To escape from all restraint, and to be as much my own master as I was in the nursery, has ever been the ruling passion of my life; and has contributed more to my pleasure than my fortune. I was once through the interest of some friends appointed secretary to one of our ambassadors at a German court; but having been obliged, much against my will, to take the route of Hamburgh instead of that through France, I gave him the slip at Cuxhaven, and stepping on board a neutral vessel, arrived safely at Dunkirk, from whence I began to pursue the route I had originally proposed to myself. Unfortunately however, a desire to see the Dutch ladies skait, having drawn me from my route on the one side, and a propensity to ascertain the form of a Swiss goitre by actual in-

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spection, having led me as far astray on the other, I found on my arrival at court, that the ambassador had fulfilled his mission, and set out three days before on his return to his native country.

"I had some time afterwards an opportunity of making my fortune in the East-Indies; but the confinement of the ship in which I was a passenger, had such an effect on my spirits, that on touching at the Cape of Good Hope, I made my escape into the inland country. I passed through the land of the Nemakas; and was not a little scandalized with the Houzouanas, who having nothing which can be called a handle to their faces, as M. le Vaillant justly observes, have no idea of that point of honour which is maintained and avenged by twisting the nose. After living at large for some time in the mountains of Kongo, where I feasted daily on goat's-flesh, and elephant's-foot pye, I made my way to the banks of the Joliba. Here I met with many curious and notable adventures, none of which, to my great astonishment, do I find recorded by Mr. Mungo Park, in his travels to those parts. I could name several well-known travellers who would not have been so fastidious.

"After having lost the great river Niger, which, as travellers hint, is swallowed up in the water-cisterns of the immense city Tombuctoo, I journied eastward, and discovered the source of the Nile, which by some chance has strayed many degrees from the longitude where it was found by Mr. Bruce. There was nothing particular in my adventures in Upper Egypt, except my rescue by Elfi Bey from the counting-house of a Copt, who, finding I could write a legible hand, insisted I should draw out for him the genealogy of the famous horse Keelhallum, which he had on sale by commission from the Arab chief Aly Ibrahim. The Bey was very humorous on this adventure some weeks ago, as we passed in his carriage through Lombard-street, where, he observed my Coptish practice would make me quite at home.

"Some years afterwards, when, on my way from the Caspian sea to Mecca, I was suddenly surprized and made prisoner by a party of the Waahabis, I found my knowledge of horse-genealogy extremely useful, and had frequently a cake of millet and a dish of coffee presented to me, as tokens of respect for my proficiency in this esteemed science. Having however quitted my new connections one night, while on an excursion to the borders of Syria, I accidentally fell in with an old friend who was going with an overland express to India; and having no particular object to occupy my attention at the moment, I accompanied him to Calcutta. On my arrival there, I found that the person who had obtained the appointment once destined for me, had already grown rich in it, and intended to return next year to Europe with a very pretty fortune. I was on this occasion extremely mortified, reflecting that I had done nothing towards living handsomely in my old age. Resolved to repair my error, I determined again to solicit the appointment I had once so imprudently forfeited; and with this view obtained permission to attend the very next overland express to London.

"My return to this capital exposed me to new uneasinesses, as the very first question every old friend I met asked me was, where I had hid myself for so many years. As this was a subject into which I did not much care to enter at length, I only replied by observing with a shrug that last summer was very sickly at Bengal, and that the Mahrattas, though sad pagans, had abundance of the Christian commodities of gold and jewels. This hint was quite sufficient to make my fortune in a very few weeks: it was shrewdly whispered that if all were known, it would be found I had in my possession a stone not a whit inferior in value to the Pigot diamond; and in the course of six months I was known in every coffee-house from Cornhill to Hyde-park-corner by the title of *The Nabob.*

"As the world had thus made me a man of fortune, I could not, but with a very bad grace, apply for the appointment in India. I therefore preferred a jaunt to Wales, where my father and mother, who died during my absence, had left me a very tolerable property. My mother's family estate had, by improvements and additions, several times doubled its value since my birth; and as I found my steward was a very honest man, as the world goes, I with much satisfaction consigned the burden of management over to him again, in one week after my arrival in the country. The situation of my farm was very pleasant; but the ceremonious visits of my neighbours beginning to grow troublesome, I one morning by break of day ordered my horses, and posted direct to London. I hired the same lodgings I at present inhabit, in the neighbourhood of Spring-Gardens: indeed, as they are very comfortable, I see no reason why I should quit them, unless my landlord insists on my taking them for a longer term than from day to day; an encroachment on my freedom which I could not possibly submit to."

Here I stopt short in my narrative, for my materials began to fail me. I had already exhausted all the great events of my life, with the exception of some marvellous adventures, which the world would certainly call traveller's tales. In other respects I had done nothing, but had only observed what others were doing. It was at this moment my man Timothy, (who by the way has lived with me these ten years, although he is never engaged but from week to week,) entered the room with the *Literary Journal*, which I had ordered, because I was told the day before at the Chapter, that it was a good thing. Your corner for MANNERS was quite the thing to suit me. I could not sit down, according to the most approved mode of biography in this age, and make up a huge volume with a few sprinklings of my own life, interspersed amidst a vast collection of every thing else which had happened during my existence. Besides, what I have seen, and what I daily see in this great city, form a thousand distinct shreds of every colour in the rain-bow; and I must confess his industry exceeds mine who would undertake to sew them into one piece of regular patch-work. I have therefore resolved to note down for you, as suits my convenience, (for that is an indispensable article in all my engagements) such observations as occur in my daily excursions; varied at times with such advices from the land of the Hottentots, and other parts I have visited in

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the course of my travels, as may not be unentertaining to your readers of both sexes. I shall perhaps occasionally let the public into several things both at the West and East end of the town, which may make some persons I know look a little foolish; for my title of Nabob, and my condition of batchelor gain me an admission every where; and I make such good use of my privileges that there are few things of consequence either public or private that escape my notice.

I have indeed often resolved to quit this desultory mode of life, as you may have observed from several advertisements in the morning papers, stating, that a gentleman in easy circumstances, with a tolerable person and a hale constitution, would be glad to meet with a lady of the middle age, who understood music, could sketch a little, and, along with an agreeable face and person, possessed that address which captivates all societies, and a little of that necessary article fortune without which no society can be enjoyed. The fear of having my natural liberties entrenched upon, has hitherto deterred me from explaining myself to any of the numerous correspondents who replied to these advertisements: but nevertheless my enquiries after the fair writers have been both diligent and successful; and I purpose one day to surprize my friends with the portraits of as choice a collection, as is to be found in London, of middle-aged ladies of moderate fortune; faithfully copied from the original by an artist particularly skilled in taking likenesses at church.

You will receive my observations, Mr. Editor, in numbers, as soon as they are written, and you may distribute them into your Journal just as you find convenient; only I must insist upon a corner every fortnight till my materials or my diligence are exhausted. I must also be indulged with a motto at the top, in order that there may be at least one smart or sententious thing in each paper; and although I know it will turn the laugh against me at the British, I will venture to sign the name I am best known by—

THE NABOB.

Spring-Gardens,
January 12th, 1804.

P. S. As I know from experience that many people are extremely willing to give a hint of what is going forward, when they think they will not appear in it, such persons as have any thing of this sort to communicate, may direct their observations to *The Nabob*, at the Office of the Literary Journal.

[We shall be glad to receive the Nabob's communications; and as an excuse for at any time delaying their insertion, we trust he will recollect that the article MANNERS, is designed to receive the favours of various Correspondents.]

POLITICS.

Changes produced in 1803.

WHEN we commenced the Literary Journal, at the beginning of the preceding year, our first discourses on the subject of government were intended to exhibit a view of the political state of Europe, as it existed at that moment. It was our wish that this view should be more comprehensive and minute than those hasty ones which we had generally seen presented to the public; and composed of materials lying somewhat below that common surface of things, which furnishes the details of the vulgar historian, and the foundation of the reasonings of the ordinary speculator. We have yet seen no reason to retract any of the opinions, or correct any of the representations which we then offered, nor can we help being somewhat confirmed in the belief of their correctness, by the partiality with which a most respectable class of readers has received them. By this labour of the year which is past, the general view of the political world which we are called upon to exhibit at the beginning of a new year, is reduced to a very narrow compass. The changes which have taken place in the state of Europe have not been of great importance; in every other respect the account delivered of that state at the beginning of last year, applies to it at the beginning of this; and to enter any further into the subject, than to specify and appreciate those changes, would only be to repeat what we have already advanced.

The first and the greatest among the constituents of a political state is the condition of political opinion. This is the foundation on which all government rests, the despotism of the Grand Signior, and the mild authority of the King of England. Now the changes which have taken place in this are very small. The ideas of the people of Europe in matters of government are not perceptibly different at this moment from what they were twelve months ago. They are very little in any country either debased or improved since that time. They appear not to be much better directed towards true liberty, but neither do they appear to be at all more conformed to slavery. They have not received much new activity; but we do not discern any symptoms of encroaching torpidity. Very little alteration too we conceive to have taken place in the degree of favour or disinclination borne by the people of the different countries to the governments under which they live. That passion to root up every thing old, and plant something new, which was inspired by the French revolution, had subsided during the course of ten years, and men taught by what had passed before their eyes, had become afraid to risk those advantages of the social order which they enjoyed, without ceasing to value those of which they knew themselves to be deprived. Thus it is a kind of divided respect which the subjects in most of the countries of Europe pay to the governments to which they yield submission. They do not wish to see them overturned; but they very much wish to see them altered; and this wish in each country is proportioned to the light diffused among the people, and the imperfections of the government under which they live. In France, for example, we believe it to be very strong. In many parts of Germany we believe it to be not much weaker. In several parts of Italy we have reason to think it has considerable strength. In all the countries lately revolutionized by France, we believe it to be intense. In the most southern, and the most northern parts of Europe, knowledge is by far the

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most scantily distributed; in these countries therefore, in Spain for example, and Russia, we suppose the sense of political grievances is the least pungent; there the people are in a state in which they as little think of being offended by the imperfections of the government, as by the intemperance of the atmosphere, or the sterility of the soil; the laws of nature and the laws of government they regard with very little sense of difference; and submit to both as equally parts of that inevitable necessity which subdues them. Though the changes, however, which have taken place in the course of last year, in the political sentiments of the people of Europe, are too small to be perceptible, or capable of being described, we are not of opinion that there has been in them an absolute stagnation. This we conceive to be a thing impossible. In the sentiments of individuals, and likewise of nations, there is a continual flux. Perfect rest is never produced. The motions are sometimes quick and sometimes slow; the changes are sometimes in matters of importance, and sometimes the contrary; but motions and changes do perpetually go on; nor have they ceased during the year which has lately closed. The changes which have happened in the state of political opinion, though not great, we conceive to have been all good. Those important particulars in the general circumstances of Europe, which lead to improvement, have been at work, and though their operations have been not a little retarded by the pernicious influence of war, they have not been altogether suspended. Knowledge has increased, and been more widely diffused. The influence of old prejudices and superstitions has been weakened. Just views of the social order, and a clearer discernment of the means of securing its advantages have been gradually diffusing themselves. And some progress, however small, has been made towards that important point, where men are equally removed from a stupid reverence to old abuses, and a giddy forwardness to rash innovation.

In the outward and visible circumstances too of the greater number of the kingdoms, very little alteration has been produced. The boundaries of each are nearly the same as they were last year. The resources of the governments, and the condition of the people have received scarcely any change. The grand circumstances which checked improvement on the one hand, or forwarded it on the other, have very little altered their relative power. In every part of Europe, the latter have the ascendancy, but that ascendancy is not much greater now than it was twelve months ago.

Let us begin with Austria. In her circumstances very little change has been produced. Some reforms, of considerable consequence, were indeed executed towards the beginning of the year. The old institution of the Aulic council of war, into which a multitude of abuses had crept, was abolished; and the military part of the government placed on a footing more conformable to the circumstances of the present time. A number of improvements likewise in the collection and management of the revenue, but too minute to be here described, have been introduced; and there is every reason to think that the financial state of Austria has been considerably improved during the last year; and that she is already greatly relieved from the difficulties into which she was thrown by an arduous and unsuccessful war. Her armies have all been recruited up to their full complement, and several new regiments have been raised. With regard to the commerce of Austria, we mention one circumstance, in which a prediction of ours, made at the beginning of last year, has been amply fulfilled. We said that the acquisition of the Venetian territory, affording an inlet to foreign commerce, must be of singular importance to Austria; and was an object of great value to us; affording a receptacle to our commerce, which was independent of the hostile efforts of France, and which must soon furnish a larger demand than we should be able to supply. The fact has even surpassed our expectation, and a greater quantity of shipments has been made for Venice and Trieste, since the interruption given to our commerce by the war with France, than in so short a time we believed possible. This is a fact of no little importance to all Europe. The rapid intercourse of the nations by means of commerce is one of the main springs of their improvement; and it infinitely concerns them all that this grand object should not be in a situation to be affected by the caprice or malignity of any one of them. The more it is extended, the more free and independent it must always become. And if all Europe were commercial, to which it is strongly tending, the other nations would be little affected by the selfish and unwise measures of any one or two of their neighbours.

Prussia is the country next to Austria. The whole of her administration, both civil and military, is in the same state exactly in which it was last year. It is understood that she has obtained some advantages in the arrangement of indemnities; but they cannot be material. The circumstance by which she has been chiefly affected, is the direction which the British commerce has received, by the present war. During the last, as well as during this war, the transit of the British commerce into Germany, has been in a great measure through the Prussian states. The blockade of the Elbe and the Weser has considerably altered its course in the present war. But we doubt whether it has altered it in any degree to the disadvantage of Prussia. We suppose that as great a proportion of that commerce passes just now through the Prussian states, as would if the commerce of Hamburgh were open. Prussia can hardly have failed, notwithstanding the discouragements arising from her government, to improve her resources, and her relative power, by the peace which she has enjoyed while her neighbours were involved in the most destructive wars.

To Russia, the preceding year has probably been more favourable than to any other part of Europe. The improvement of that country has been urged on with uncommon force since its commencement. Nothing has occurred in the course of last year to obstruct the causes which, during half a century, have been operating these beneficial effects. A mild sovereign has not contented himself with an idle and careless view of the benefits already obtained for his country, but has applied his hand with vigour to increase them.

He seems to have discerned with admirable perspicacity the causes which keep his states behind the more improved parts of Europe, the very two causes which held fast the chains of misery upon all Europe for ages—the feudal privileges of the great proprietors, and the ignorance of the people. He has applied himself with energy to reduce the power of the nobles, to emancipate the peasants from their subjection to these arbitrary masters, and to render both subject to the same laws. This most important object has been fully accomplished in several parts of the empire. This prince has set himself to the task of removing the ignorance of his people in a manner truly great. He has not satisfied himself with any puny half-measure. A grand system of education for the whole mass of the people, of every class, and in every corner of the empire, has been matured under his eye, and finally carried into effect. Colleges have been established in all the cities of the empire, for communicating all the parts of a liberal education; and schools have been erected in every village for teaching the primary and more essential branches. A scheme equal to this in grandeur and beneficence has not yet been executed by any other government in Europe. One great object, however, necessary to obtain all the good effects of these improvements, is yet wanting—the liberty of the press. So few books have as yet been written or printed in Russia, that restrictions with regard to them cannot hitherto have been the cause of much evil. But the restrictions with regard to the importation of foreign books, are very severe and arbitrary; and impose a strong check on the progress of intellectual improvement. The commerce of Russia has been advancing in uninterrupted prosperity. The ships of all nations are invited to her ports, and find new inducements to repair to them in the increasing industry, wealth, and civilization of the people. In the shores of the Black Sea, the Hellespont, Archipelago, and the Mediterranean, she has possessed herself of a new and most important source of wealth and improvement to her states, of which happy effects the last year has yielded a very promising earnest. She appears to be sensible likewise of the means which the Black Sea affords her of becoming a maritime power, by the orders issued to build ships in it, and maintain a fleet. The last particular deserving to be mentioned, is the augmentation which her military force has lately received. She has at this moment a greater army on foot, than at any other period of her history.

The most important change which has taken place in the state of Europe in the course of the preceding year, is the change from peace to war between the two leading nations. This is an event which affects to a considerable degree every other nation in Europe. It renders the tranquillity of every state less secure. It interrupts the circulation both of commodities, and of inhabitants among the nations, and thus obstructs one of the most powerful of all the causes of improvement. It turns a great part of the industry of each state which is employed in supplying the wants of its neighbours from its most natural and profitable channel. It wastes and destroys, in the countries afflicted with the war, those accumulated treasures, the capitals of the trader, manufacturer, and cultivator, the means of maintaining labour, and of prompting ingenuity, which are the great cause of wealth and prosperity, not only to the countries which possess them, but to all those with which such countries have any dealings.

No very accurate estimate can be formed of the changes actually produced in the countries at war. That which we can form with regard to France, both as it is a foreign country, and in a more unsettled, and new state, is the most vague. Certain things, however, and those of the first consequence, are perfectly ascertained. The foreign commerce of France, at least all that part of it which is sea-borne, and must in every country be nearly the whole, is cut off; and all that part of the industry of France, which was dependant upon foreign commerce, must be destroyed. Much of this there was not indeed to destroy, since very little could be created in the short and feverish interval of peace. But there was some, and that was daily growing more. The entire colonial traffic of France is in like manner ruined. This, however much disordered by the unhappy situation of the colonies, excited the strongest attention, and hopes, and encouraged the highest speculations in France; and from the unequalled value of the colonies, the interest raised by them was most natural. To the accomplishment of perhaps the most favourite of all the present objects of French ambition, the creation of a navy, this traffic was of first and indispensable necessity. The great change which has been produced in France is in the removal of a great number of men from the productive employments to the business of war; and in the wealth spent in the apparatus, and maintenance of the war. The number of soldiers at present maintained by the republic, is stated in some prints at six or seven hundred thousand, and is certainly not less than five hundred thousand. With regard to the importance of this we shall cite the opinion of men of the first eminence for political knowledge. Montesquieu in his "considerations sur les causes de la grandeur des Romains, & de leur Decadence," chap. 3, says, "An uninterrupted experience has established the fact in Europe, that a prince who has a million of subjects, cannot, without ruining himself, maintain more than ten thousand troops." This proportion is that of one to a hundred. Now, if we take the number of inhabitants in the territory of the republic at her own estimate, 30 millions, the number of troops which she can maintain, without self-destruction, is 300,000; and it appears that she has doubled, or nearly doubled that number. If another great authority be wanted to confirm this point, we may name Dr. Smith, who in his Wealth of Nations, book 5, chap. 1, says, "Among the civilized nations of modern Europe, it is commonly computed, that not more than one hundredth part of the inhabitants of any country can be employed as soldiers, without ruin to the country which pays the expence of their service." One of the best informed and most profound of all the French writers in politics since the era of the revolution, is

the author of 'Considérations sur l'Organization sociale.' He thus expresses himself in the end of the year 1802, on the subject of the finances and armies of France. " The really enlightened and patriotic men know that the disorders of our finances cannot be remedied without reforming at once our laws political, civil, agricultural, and commercial; and that three hundred thousand soldiers cannot be maintained without ruining the state." Besides the ruinous expence of maintaining five or six, or according to some accounts seven hundred thousand men, France has in the short duration of the present war, incurred an expence much greater. For her magnificent project of invading England, an enormous apparatus was necessary; the whole of which she had to create. All the energy and resources of the French government have been now directed to this object for nearly a year; and it is not yet completed. Whoever has any idea of the expence of ship-building, of building even the smallest craft, will need no words to inform him how vast must have been the sums expended in the flotilla with which we are threatened. To have a just idea of the change produced in the state of France by this expence, we must think of the exhausted condition in which she was when the war began. The readers of the Literary Journal have probably not forgotten the extraordinary documents which we presented to them on this subject, in the spring of last year. The disordered state of the finances of France is another cause that the change produced in her situation by the war must be very great, and very unfavourable. With regard to the system of taxation, the author last quoted uses the following terms: " It oppresses property, it arrests circulation, it extinguishes agricultural, manufacturing, and commercial industry; in fine, it destroys all the proportion which ought to subsist between the wants of the national treasury, and its resources. The more we examine the foundation, and the effects of this ruinous system, the more we perceive that it is impossible to get out of the labyrinth in which we are bewildered, so long as we are not convinced that it is impossible to establish good order in the finances by oppressive taxes, by confiscations, or by bankruptcies; and that it is the riches of individuals which constitute the riches of the state. In a word to deliver us from our present confusion, a complete change is required in the notions which we have long pursued." Toward the end of his chapter on finance, the same author adds the following words: " To these considerations we will join a remark, peculiar to France. Her government cannot dissemble that there exists a considerable deficit between its receipts and expences. In vain should it hope that peace will destroy this deficit, because the source of it is much more in its financial laws than in the expences of the war." This was spoken at the end of a year of peace. In a note on this passage he gives a statement, from the documents of the minister of finance, of the deficit for the year 1800, which he carries to 146,519,561 francs. According to him the net amount of the taxes for that year, was only 470,072,543 francs. Thus the deficit is little less than one-fourth part of the whole revenue. In the accounts of last year it appeared that the revenue had become a good deal more productive. The reason given for it by the minister of finance on presenting these accounts was, that government by the advantage of peace, had been able to attend to, and prevent an infinite number of enormous frauds and abuses in the collection, and management of the revenue, which they had been obliged to overlook in the confusion, and agitation of war. This confusion and agitation is renewed, and as nothing had been done to improve the system of finance, which is still in that disordered condition described above, these frauds and abuses must recur, and the burthens of the people be augmented. The enormous burthens of the French war laid upon a people already groaning under the miseries of poverty must make an extraordinary change in their situation. The only military exploit has been the overrunning, and plundering of Hanover, which has afforded the maintenance of some months to a detachment of the French army, and a portion of riches to a few of the officers.

We come now to consider the changes produced during last year in the state of Britain. The war has affected in some degree her trade, it has produced very unusual military preparations, and has occasioned a heavy expence. The effect which the war has had upon our trade, we were lately endeavouring to appreciate, and have little at present to add to what we then advanced. It is now proved by experience that it has not been in the power of the war even in its first year, to diminish the commerce of this country. Yet the stagnation of trade in former wars has always been greatest at the beginning. The reason is, that the hostile nation or nations have it generally in their power to interpose obstructions to it in certain channels, and it requires time to enable it to find its way into others. In the present case the interval of peace had been so short, that the channels of commerce during the war had been scarcely shut; it was therefore no difficult matter to open them. The violent attempt of the French to obstruct the navigation of the Elbe and the Weser, has been more prejudicial to the countries supplied by these rivers, than to Great Britain. The unabated prosperity of the British trade is proved by the full employment of all the manufacturing districts; by the stability of the mercantile houses; by the complete occupation, and high wages of all the labouring people; and above all by the prosperous state of the revenue. The produce of the taxes on the articles of almost every branch of trade has increased instead of diminishing since the commencement of the war. The profits of this trade are such, that the annual increase of riches is much greater than the annual expence of the war. When we have taken the annual expence of the war, therefore, out of the annual profits of the nation, we have the whole of our old riches behind, with a certain surplus every year, by which to augment them. The effect of the war upon our riches, therefore, is not to diminish them, not even to prevent them from encreasing, but only to prevent them from encreasing quite so fast as they would otherwise do.

With regard to our military preparations, the number of the regulars is stated at 167,669 men, and that

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of the militia in England and Ireland at 68,000, making in all 235,669 real soldiers. The number of the army of reserve which may be added, will probably carry the total to 250,000 men. This estimated by the rule laid down above, from Montesquieu and Smith, is an establishment greatly too burthensome. The population of Great Britain and Ireland cannot be stated at more than 16 millions. The hundredth part of this is only 160,000, the whole number of soldiers which by that rate this population can sustain. But the number we have is more than one half greater. To this yet remain to be added 100,000 seamen. The number of men, therefore, permanently employed in warlike operations by this country at the present moment, is not as one to a hundred in the population, but is rather more than as one to fifty; so that it is somewhat more than one half greater than it ought to be. In speaking of the excess in the warlike establishment of France, we took no notice of her seamen; because, in reality, they are scarcely so numerous as to deserve notice. But when we include the seamen of Great Britain in her establishment, it is right to observe, that a great part of all those persons employed in preparing, and keeping the great flotilla of France, are in respect to burthens to be considered in the light of seamen, and are a much greater proportional number than the seamen of this country; so that the excess in the establishment of France, even in respect of numbers, is much greater than that of Britain. But the productive powers of Great Britain render that difference more enormous. The improvements which have been made in this country in the division and distribution of labour, in the skill, and perseverance of workmen of all descriptions, and in machinery and contrivances to abridge labour, authorize the assertion that the labour of every man in this country, at a machine, is equal to that of any two men in almost any other part of Europe. If then, it be computed, that the ignorant and enslaved, and idle population of the despotic countries of Europe can maintain one in the hundred for national defence, we may safely conclude that this country can maintain one in fifty without retrenching any more upon the comforts and the means of prosperity of the nation.

We have not yet mentioned the volunteer system. Into the general problem, what is the value of this armament, as a mean of defence? what are the effects which it promises, good or bad, on the liberty and good order of the nation? we cannot at present enter. We shall reserve it as the subject of some future inquiry. The volunteers, rank and file, in England, have been stated by ministers at 340,000. The portion of his time bestowed by each man upon his military exercises, cannot be reckoned at less than one twentieth. By every twenty volunteers there is as much time employed on military business, as would be by one man entirely engaged in them. It is proper, accordingly, to consider the volunteers as equal, in point of burthen to the nation, to one twentieth part of their numbers entirely soldiers. This twentieth is 17,000; which added to the numbers of soldiers and seamen specified above, brings the number of men entirely engaged in warlike affairs to one in every 45 of the general population. This effort is enormous; and however enormous the means we have to support it, it is too visible what occasion we have to desire that we should not long be required to maintain it.

Any change produced as yet in the state of Britain by the expences of the war is not visible. Stocks are at a very reasonable price; the demand for exchequer bills is great; the old taxes have been more productive than before; and a very small part of the war taxes has yet been levied.

We know not whether we should call the late commotions in Ireland, a change or not. They were nothing but an occasional manifestation of that spirit which existed, and which will exist, till the great healing measures, which alone can alter it, be cordially and effectually applied. Ireland was apparently quiet at the beginning of the year, disturbed in the middle of it, and quiet in the end. But we regard it as having been in the same state all the while.

Changes of some consequence in the state of our colonial possessions in the West Indies, have taken place. The whole of the Dutch settlements may now be regarded as ours; and their value, if we had not too many settlements already, is great. Some of the smaller islands of France, too, have fallen into our hands; and St. Domingo itself may be considered as lost to the mother country.

Little more remains to be said to conclude the Political Review of last year. Spain and Portugal were crouching beneath the sword of the French republic, at the beginning of the year, and they are so now. Their subjection has been lately made available to the Consul, in the shape of a little money; and their degradation has had a fresh exposure to the eyes of the neighbouring nations. The causes which are working the ruin of the Ottoman empire have not been interrupted; some strong effects were lately exhibited; and that unseemly mass is now tottering to its fall. The great Transatlantic nation, whose origin and pursuits connect her so closely with Europe, has obtained some valuable favours of fortune. The rupture between Great Britain and France bestowed upon her the province of Louisiana, on which she sets a great value. It removes from her a dangerous neighbour; it bestows upon her a valuable territory, of which she had no want; and it gives her the free navigation of a river, which renders a fine country she had already planted more highly valuable. An extension of her foreign trade must be the effect of the disturbances of the Europeans; but she would have as much as is good for her without these disturbances.

Political History, Foreign and Domestic.

Of the many weeks barren of intelligence which have elapsed since the beginning of this war, the last two have not been the least remarkable. The accounts which we are able to give of the military movements in France are very insignificant and vague. The alarm which was propagated of an immediate invasion has blown over; it arose from false information communicated to the minister. The whole of the French and Batavian military force in Holland and Zealand, is not thought to exceed 40,000 men, garrisons included. Movements however, are daily kept up among the different bodies of the soldiers to favour

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the appearance of invasion. The legislative body of the Italian republic has been required to take measures for contributing to the expedition against England, and has consented to grant an aid of land and sea forces. Five millions and a half of Milanese livres are to be raised by a land-tax, payable at a very short period; to be employed in the construction of two frigates and twelve gun boats and the equipment of troops.

The sittings of the legislative body, which has been new modelled by a late act of the Senate, were to be opened on the 6th, by Bonaparte with great pomp by a speech from a seat, which great pains have been taken to decorate, and which is intended very nearly to resemble a royal throne. Previous to this the First Consul was to be absent for some days, on a visit to the military preparations on the coast.

Dissentions of rather a serious nature exist in the German empire. The unfortunate constitution of that Body contains in itself sufficient seeds of Discord; and the late settlement of indemnities has added greatly to the ancient stock. The interests of Prussia, in that settlement were manifestly favoured more than those of Austria. And violent remonstrances have been lately made by the Emperor, on that subject. He has chosen to put his complaints on the footing of religion; and has represented the injustice of reducing the number of Catholic voices in the Diet, below that of the Protestant voices. The last accounts received from Germany state that the Prussian and Austrian interest contend with great violence for the superiority. Bavaria is the next in authority; but her weakness, and the opposition of her interests to those of Austria render her dependent upon France.

The disorders in the Ottoman empire appear to have nearly come to a crisis. Rebellion is no longer confined to the distant provinces, but has penetrated to the very seat of government. Two rebel Pachas marched into the streets of Constantinople, carrying terror and destruction along with them; while the Sultan was unable to oppose any effectual resistance. They at last retired. But their forbearance is suspected to have been purchased by the gold of the seraglio.

A capitulation has been formed between the Turkish commanders and the Beys in Egypt. The conditions are that the same government shall be restored in Egypt, as existed previous to the French invasion. Delay is made to the final settlement only till the terms shall be confirmed by the Turkish government.

Arangements have at last been made between France and Spain, for the surrender of Louisiana to the United States. It is first to be formally ceded by Spain to France and by France given to the Americans. A bill for extending the laws of the United States to the newly acquired territories, has gone through some stages. The misunderstanding between the Emperor of Morocco, and the United States has been adjusted, and peace concluded.

Several peices of intelligence have lately been received from India. The Peishwa has been enthroned at Poonah, with great pomp, and amid the congratulations of a vast multitude of people: Scindea is expected to besiege Indoor, the capital of Holkar, who is reduced to extremity. Madagee Boonslah, the chief of the eastern Mahrattas, has formed an alliance with the Company of a very advantageous nature. But the article of chief importance is, that the trade between Persia and the Company has been opened in its full extent, according to the treaty concluded with the Persian Ambassador; and the imports during the first three months have exceeded all expectation. This will probably constitute one of the most important eras in the history of the European settlements in the East. Such trade must soon become very great, and contribute prodigiously to the improvement both of the Peninsula, and of the Persian empire. It will speedily encrease the power, and consequence of the Company many fold; but it will too, in all probability, greatly accelerate the rupture of the connection of that wonderful colony with the mother country.

It is worthy of record that in spite of the late storms the British fleet maintained its station off the harbours of the enemy, and that Admiral Cornwallis, though obliged to bear away for Torbay, with two ships, on account of the damage sustained in their rigging, sailed again in 36 hours for his station, without having once gone on shore. The inimitable perseverance of this admirable commander, is beyond all praise, and is more glorious than any victory.

As a convoy of the French flotilla was endeavouring on the 3d inst. to make its way along the coast from one harbour to another, it was attacked by the Immortalité, an English frigate of 36 guns, and the Archer gun-brig, with signal effect. Five of the vessels have been sent into port, and a very considerable number must have been destroyed.

The scarcity of silver has at last produced a resolution for the emission of dollars, at the Bank. They are to be stamped and to pass for 5s. which is something more than they are worth; but the Bank continues bound to receive them again at that price. The only inconvenience apprehended from this measure is the danger of counterfeiting the coin, and this it will not be easy to prevent.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Royal Society.—At the meeting on Thursday, January 19th, was read a paper of Count de Bournon, on chrystallization; and if calcedony be ever found chrystallized?

Antiquarian Society.—On the same evening was read a letter of Mr. Jackson on the ancient Utica, which was next in extent and magnitude to Carthage, and in the same gulph. Here Mr. J. visited the subterraneous vaults, in which the ceilings were covered with bats of enormous size, called by Virgil *harpies*, which being disturbed, left their places, and nearly extinguished the flambeaux, and but for a lanthorn, the curious visitors might have been lost in the dark. In the same place Mr. J. found foxes, burrowing in the underground ruins. The air in these caverns was oppressive, but by firing pistols was much cleared, and became more respirable.

Royal Institution.—The following account of the improvements which have lately taken place in this excellent establishment will, we doubt not, be acceptable to our readers:—

"The apparatus for the lectures, and the collection of models have been increased, improved, and arranged in the

repository: descriptive accounts of their natures, uses, and applications are preparing, so as to make that part of the property of the corporation an object of attraction to those who may visit the Institution.

"The laboratory for experimental processes has been enlarged by the addition of the former work room, and has been improved by many new arrangements. Provision has been made in it for preparing the different re-agents and tests employed in Philosophical Chemistry, and for carrying on various new and interesting researches.

"The foundation of a mineralogical collection has been laid by the exertions of Mr. Davy. For the purpose of extending it, one of the proprietors has generously offered a donation of £100; and others have promised to contribute to it such minerals as they may have opportunities of procuring. The fossils which have been already provided, are about to be arranged and described for the inspection of the members of the Institution, to whom, it is to be hoped, they may prove useful, as supplying the means of studying mineralogy, and by affording specimens for the lectures and for practical analysis.

"The reading library of the Institution is now completed; and the room for the collection of reference is fitting up, on a plan to receive 10,000 volumes, some part of which are already purchased. It is in such a state of forwardness as to promise its being completed, and ready to be opened for the proprietors and subscribers, early in the ensuing season."

To these extracts from the Reports of the *Committees of Science and Accounts*, we have to add the information, that the lectures on natural philosophy will be arranged in three distinct courses:—the first intended to be a complete course of experimental philosophy, the second, to comprehend practical mechanics, in which will be exhibited a variety of models of engines of every description, and particularly such as are employed in the most useful and general manufactures; and the third to include optics and astronomy, which will be rendered as entertaining and instructive as possible, by an extensive apparatus, such as the differently constructed telescopes, the solar and Lucernal Phieroscopes, and the Orrery.

The lectures on chemistry will be included in two courses; the first of which will exhibit the chemistry of natural history, and the chemical economy of nature; and the second will relate to the artificial system of chemistry, or theoretical and practical chemistry, in which the various chemical facts belonging to nature and the arts, will be experimentally demonstrated and subjected to their respective laws.

Besides the vast number of experiments that must be made in the different courses of lectures, it has been thought proper to institute a particular and distinct series of experimental operations to be publicly exhibited before such proprietors and subscribers as shall choose to attend them. This series, being chiefly conducted in the laboratory by means of the improved apparatus, it is also thought, will be extremely interesting and beneficial.

For the lectures two gentlemen of known talents and reputation, Mr. Dalton and Mr. Allen, are at present engaged, in addition to Mr. Davy, the chemical professor. And we are also informed, that another gentleman, equally respectable, in point of character and scientific attainments, has been applied to, and it is hoped may also be induced to give his assistance.

The first course for the season began on the 22d of December; and in the latter part of the present month, the other lectures and the public experiments will begin, the latter of which will be made, partly in the Lecture Room, and partly in the new laboratory, which has been fitted up so as to accommodate 120 persons.

A new translation of Theocritus is preparing by several gentlemen of distinguished literary and poetical abilities, which is to be decorated with engravings from the designs of an eminent artist.

Major Rennel, who lately illustrated the Geography of Herodotus, has been since employed in comparing the Geography of the Sacred Scriptures with his own local observations, which have fully established its accuracy. It is to be hoped the public will soon benefit by this important investigation.

Mr. Edward Kennion has announced for publication, Elements of Universal Representation in Landscape.

Mr. Baugh of Llanymynech, is employed on a Map of Shropshire, on a large scale.

Mr. Wrangham will shortly publish his poem, on "The raising of the daughter of Jairus," written for the Seatonian Prize.

Mr. *Samuel Daniel* is about to publish by Subscription in ten Numbers, accompanied by a descriptive letter-press, A Series of Prints taken from nature, and engraved in colours by himself, representing views near the Cape of Good Hope, and in the interior of the country; the appearance and costume of several tribes of the natives; and also various examples of the animals found in that part of the world. Mr. S. Daniel resided for three years at the Cape, and penetrated further into the interior of southern Africa than any former traveller, during which he observed many quadrupeds which are altogether unknown to Europeans, or have been hitherto imperfectly described. The following account of the Korah Village, will best describe the interesting information that may be expected from this work:

"The village that appears in this view is on the Gareep or Orange River, and inhabited by Hottentots of a tribe denominated *Korahs*, settled on the south bank of that river, and who are, perhaps, the best featured of all the different nations or hordes of this extraordinary race of human beings. Their huts are composed of rush mattings spread over bended sticks; they are of an hemispherical form, about six feet high, and eight in diameter, with an aperture on the side for an entrance. The trees on each side of the river, in the vicinity of this village, are tall and spreading: among which a species of Mimosa was the most abundant. Their manner of swimming across the river with their sheep and goats, as introduced in this plate, appeared somewhat singular. A man lays himself on the trunk or branch of a large tree, about six or seven feet in length, into which at a few inches distance from one of its extremities, a pin is fixed, which the swimmer holds perpendicularly with one hand, while the other is employed in keeping the head of the animal he carries with him above water. By directing the point of the log obliquely against the current, and at the same time striking with his feet, he, in some degree, prevents his float from drifting with the stream. This place was the first from the boundary of the Cape Colony that presented the traces of human habitation, a journey of upwards of thirty days from Cape Town; and it was the more interesting, from the circumstance of meeting with some members of the Christian mission, who had here commenced their generous labours. They had been lately deputed from that respectable body the Missionary Society in Europe; a society which, though chiefly English, includes the pious and benevolent of different countries, and whose exertions to promulgate the truths of the Gospel in the South of Africa, already promise, by the zealous endeavours of Mr. Keikerer, and Dr. Van Der Kemp, to be rewarded with extraordinary success."

Steel, of Tower-hill, has just published a Chart of the Hondt, or Western Scheldt, from the sea to Antwerp, made by order of the Minister of the French Marine, by Beautemps Beaupre, hydrographical engineer of the Depôt de la Marine, assisted by Daussy, Portier, and Raoul.

In the last Number of the Literary Journal, "*a System of Mineralogy*," on the Wernerian plan, by Mr. Robert Jamieson of Leith, a pupil of the celebrated Werner, was announced as in the press. This system will comprehend Oryctognosy, Geognosy, Mineralogical Geography, Chemical Mineralogy, and Economical Mineralogy. The magistrates and town council of Edinburgh, we understand, have unanimously resolved to recommend the above gentleman to his Majesty as a proper person to be appointed professor of Natural History in the University of that city, in the room of the deceased Doctor Walker.

M. Pierre Custodi an Italian of distinguished literary character, is engaged in publishing at Milan, a collection of the works of all the authors who have written in the Italian language upon political economy. This valuable collection, of which four volumes executed in a superb style are already printed, will comprehend the works of Borghini, Scaruffi, Davanzati, Lerra Turbulo, Montanari, Bandini, Broggia, Maffei, Belloni, Pagnini, Neri, Galiani, Carli, Algarotti, Beccaria, Genovesi, Zanon, Verri, Paoletti, Briganti, d'Areo, Filangieri, Vasco, Mengotti, Palmieri, Gennaro di Cantalupo, Dellico, Corniani and Gianna. At the end of the collection M. Custodi will publish researches upon the industry and commerce of Italy from the most remote antiquity till the revival of letters, and give a view of the present state of Economical Science in Italy and of the other nations of Europe. A sketch of the author's life will be prefixed to each work. The whole collection will be comprized in 30 volumes, and published in the space of a year.

J. Izarn, Professor of Chemistry and Physics in the Society of Sciences, Belles Lettres, and Arts, at Paris, has published a volume in 8vo, containing an explanation of the new chemical terms; designed for the use of those who without having turned their attention to the Science, wish to profit by its discoveries.

Nouveau Dictionaire d'Histoire Naturelle, or a New Dictionary of Natural History, applied to the Arts, and principally to Agriculture, and to rural and domestic Economy, is publishing at Paris, by a Society of naturalists and agriculturists, whose names are as follow:—Sonnini, Virey, Parmentier, Huzard, Bosc, Chaptal, Olivier, Latreille, Gels, Thouin, Dutour and Patrin, almost all of them members of the National Institute. The work will form 24 large volumes 8vo. It is adorned with copper-plate figures taken from the three kingdoms of nature. A Paris, chez Deterville, rue du Battoir.

This grand undertaking is prosecuted with activity and now approaches to its termination. A more full account of the work will be given when the whole is completed, but it may be observed at present from the specimens that have already appeared, that it contains many interesting and important facts, and will be an useful acquisition to the scientific world.

The class of French literature of the National Institute, has resolved to publish a critical essay on two writers of the eighteenth century, namely on *Gresset* the poet, and *Vauvenarques*, a prose writer. Two committees have been appointed to prepare this essay. *Andrieux*, *Boufflers*, *Collin d'Harleville*, *Fontanes* and *Ségur*, form the committee charged with the critical examination of *Gresset's* works, and *Garat*, *Morellet*, *Roederer*, *Sieyes* and *Sicard*, compose the other.

Citizen *Landon* has lately edited in Paris, "*Vies et œuvres des Peintres les plus célèbres de toutes les écoles; recueil classique contenant l'œuvre complétte du premier rang et leurs portraits, les principales productions des Artistes de la seconde et troisième classe; un abrégé de la vie des peintres Grecs et un choix des plus belles peintures antiques: reduit et gravé au trait, &c. &c.* The first volume of this interesting work is entirely devoted to the works of *Domenichino*, whose portrait, engraved after an original picture found in Florence, and the life of that celebrated painter are prefixed to this volume. The plates are finely executed by *Le Fevre*, *Madame le Fevre*, *Fortier*, *Besq*, *Boutrois*, *Gadefroi*, *Mad. Coiny*, *Devilliers*, *Dufresne* and *Gautier*, but it must be a matter of sincere regret to every friend of the fine arts, that while Mr. Landon has admitted into his valuable collection, paintings generally known and represented in the "*Manual du Musée*" and "*Annales du Musée*" he should have excluded some of the most eminent works of Domenichino, for instance, the four Evangelists on the cupola of the church of St. Andrew della Valle in Rome, and other admirable productions of the same painter.

Doctor *Senf*, in Halle, has published "*Nonnulla de incremento ossium embryonum in primis graviditatis temporibus*," with 2 plates. This instructive performance contains a very interesting account of the successive progress of ossification in embryo from the seventh to the fourteenth week of pregnancy.

SCIENTIFIC.

Liverpool Meteorology, 1803.

Continued from page 62.

1803.	Fall of Rain.	Evaporation of Water.
	In. Dec.	*In. Dec.*
Brought from page 62 ..	11 - 73	11 - 91
July	1 - 54	3 -
August	1 - 88	2 - 88
September	1 - 60	2 - 25
October.....	- 82	1 - 55
November	3 - 25	1 - 10
December.....	4 - 60	1 -
Total 1803	25 - 42	23 - 69

A superb and magnificent Cabinet of Natural History, is to be sold at Leyden during the ensuing spring; the day of sale and conditions to be previously specified. It is said to contain specimens of whatever is precious and rare in the mineral and fossil kingdoms, such as ores of gold and silver, metals and precious stones, among which are several diamonds, sapphires, &c. &c. a unique jasper, all sorts of marble, with a great many other curiosities whose value and rarity serve to render this collection of the first importance: There is besides, a collection of shells, among which are the most admired species; the whole collected during a space of forty years, without pains or expence being spared, and arranged in order according to the systems of the most celebrated natural historians, *Linnæus*, *Waller*, &c. &c. Letters from probable purchasers may be addressed, *Mrs. P. Den Hengst, et fils, Libraires dans Le Kalverstraat a Amsterdam.*

Doctor Mitchel has discovered and published in the transactions of the American Society a process by which Sea Water may be rendered fit for scouring foul linen without the assistance of soap. Considering the pestilential diseases that are occasioned by a neglect of cleanliness on board ships during long voyages, this discovery may be regarded as of the greatest importance.

TO CORRESPONDENTS.

**** We have to return our thanks for several valuable Communications whose insertion would not have been delayed but for the length of our* General Views, *which have also excluded other interesting Articles. The hint of* H. *shall not be entirely neglected.*

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THE LITERARY JOURNAL.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

Godwin's Life of Chaucer.—(Concluded from our last.)

FROM the religion of Chaucer's early days, our author turns to the amusements in which he probably shared. As the minstrels were the principal ministers of pleasure in those times, *occasion is taken* to introduce their progressive history. The serious compositions of the primitive bards and scalds were in process of time intermingled with gay and jocular strains by the glee-men. While these musicians were held in the highest respect they went about individually, but afterwards in companies; and their degenerating state was farther marked by their songs, which they originally composed themselves, being now furnished them by others. It was after the Norman conquest that the name of minstrel was introduced; and the part he had to perform was infinitely more complicated than that of his predecessors of former times: he at once required the accomplishments of a vocal and instrumental performer, a dancer, a posture-master, a jester, a professor of legerdemain, and a sorcerer. The detailed account of these qualifications is very amusing. The minstrels having become extremely numerous, were at length formed into a sort of corporation.

That the minstrels were our first dramatists is attempted to be proved from the writings of John of Salisbury, who lived in the twelfth century, in which they are styled *histriones* and *mimi*. The origin of the miracle-plays and mysteries, Mr. G. attributes to the jealousy of the monks, who could not endure that any but themselves should possess influence over the minds of the people, and who consequently looked with an evil eye on the extreme fondness prevailing for the profane plays of the minstrels. The pageants are the only profane plays in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, particularly mentioned in history. The miracle plays represented the miracles of the confessors, and the sufferings of the martyrs. The actors consisted at various periods, of the clergy, of boys, of the parish-clerks. The mysteries, which represented the actions of Scriptural personages, were of a later date and a more select nature. By the close of the fourteenth century profane plays were common. The conjecture of Roscoe that the miracle-plays were at first represented in dumb shew is combated from the early history of other nations, and from a mixture of dialogue being more naturally suggested by what is observed in real life.

The Feasts of Fools, of the Ass, and of Innocents, these Fescennines of the middle ages in which the populace burlesqued the rites of the church which they at other seasons adored, are pleasantly described; as well as the *Lord of misrule*, a very exalted personage who was chosen to preside over the revels of Easter, Whitsuntide, and Christmas. The nature of the feudal establishment led to a very expensive style of living among the monarchs and great lords of these times, who kept open tables for all their vassals. Public shews, exhibited in the open air were extremely popular among the ancient English; the most remarkable of which were, that at the inauguration of the Lord Mayor, the ceremonial of May-day, of setting the midsummer watch, and the shows exhibited at the coronation of the king or some other remarkable incident in the family of the sovereign. The other diversions of our ancestors were hunting, hawking, archery, wrestling, prize-fighting, cock-fighting and throwing at cocks, with bear and bull-baiting—that *humane and manly* diversion, which, as Mr. G. observes, some of our modern politicians have accounted "a becoming school for courage, generosity and benevolence, and a pledge of our retaining among us the virtues of our ancient character." Robbery, which we may expect some day to hear panegyrised in the same manner, is pointed out as becoming extremely general in consequence of the nation being familiarized to such diversions. The account of tournaments, and of the orders of the Round Table and the Garter, which follow, are an easy compilation of a few well-known facts.

The description which is given of the ancient style of architecture contains only facts generally known. Massive pillars, and circular arches formed the characteristics of the more ancient Gothic style; the latter Gothic is known by its pointed arches, its slender pillars, the vaultings of its roofs formed by successive curves, and the prominent buttresses on the outside of the walls. In a comparison of the Gothic and Grecian styles we are told, that the former "*is more religious*," entirely according to Mr. G's ideas of religion which we remarked above. A tediously minute description of the ancient castles succeeds, not on account of the things themselves, but because such a description gives us the *deepest insight* into the mind of Chaucer. When the ferocity of the times began to relax, and society to acquire a more settled form, it became customary for men of rank to have a manor-house for their usual residence, while the castle was only used as a place of resort in the hour of danger.

The use of paintings and sculpture in the Roman Catholic worship, caused these arts to be early cultivated in every popish country. In the tenth century, St. Dunstan, and many other natives of this island, were celebrated for their skill in painting; as well as for their curious works in gold and silver. As a specimen of the embroidery of the eleventh century, our author quotes that celebrated tapestry, representing the atchievements of William the Conqueror, which has lately been exhibited at Paris, by order of

another intended conqueror. Mr. G. supposes it to have been executed by the hands of English women. The paintings lately discovered in St. Stephen's chapel form an instance of the state of that art in the reign of Henry III.; and we are told that a full account of them is preparing for the public by Mr. Smith, of Newman-street.

The great object of our author in all these descriptions seems to be to prove that an age, commonly accounted barbarous, was much less so than we are apt to imagine; and that the state of the arts at that period was sufficient to communicate to the mind of Chaucer, the most refined ideas. "The sun of science had risen, and the dews which welcome its beams were not yet dissipated; he smelled the freshness of the morning, and his heart dilated at the sight of its soft and unsullied hues." Music, both profane and sacred, was passionately cultivated during the whole Saxon dynasty. In the eleventh century, counter-point, or the method of singing in parts was introduced; Guido Aretino invented his scale of music; and Franco of Cologne, the time-table, or the method of notation by which the length to be given to each musical sound was determined. The refinements resulting from these discoveries were however but slowly adopted. The following just observations are made on this subject. "In the ancient music the sounds produced by the singer or the instrument were subordinate to the words; and every man not infatuated with a passion for music, will admit that, however rapturous or impressive may be the accord of sounds, yet the language of music, taken separately from words, is loose, obscure, and enigmatical, susceptible of various interpretations, and guiding us with no sufficient decision to any. When we hear a tune unaccompanied by words (unless that tune by past association is enabled to raise up in our minds the image or general purpose of certain words,) or when we hear a tune in which the luxuriance and multiplicity of musical sounds, obscures and tramples with disdain upon the majestic simplicity of words, our attention will almost universally be fixed less upon the passion which ought to be communicated, than upon the skill of the artist; we shall admire much, and feel comparatively little. In a tune in which the number and time of the musical sounds are regulated by the syllabic measure of the verse, there will be an awful or a fascinating simplicity, which is capable of powerfully moving the heart. Refined and scientifical music can delight no man, but from affectation, unless it be aided by previous habits or education. The taste for it is consequently an artificial taste; and when most perseveringly and successfully cultivated, yet its power over the mind will never rise to so great a degree of strength, as the pleasures of natural taste."

Instrumental music was introduced into the European churches in the eighth century, and the first organ erected in an English church by St. Dunstan in the tenth. That Chaucer was a great lover of music appears from various passages in his writings.

The appearance of Chaucer at the university of Cambridge *gives occasion* for a description of the universities in his times, which we are told acquired their vast popularity from the licentiousness of the monks rendering them improper instructors of youth; while, in their turn, the universities were thinned by the fears of parents, lest their children should be seduced to join the orders of the mendicant friars, who began to bear the sway in these seats of learning. The logic of the school-men was now in its zenith; and other sciences, as formerly mentioned, had been imported from the Saracens. One of those numerous recapitulations of the few facts and the many conjectures about Chaucer's life is here introduced.

The mention of the poem of the Court of Love, supposed to be written by Chaucer at the University of Cambridge, *gives occasion* to introduce a description of the state of the English language of that period. Many fanciful motives are brought forward to account for his composing in his vernacular tongue; but whether our author has hit *by accident* on the true ones or not, he seems in his ardour to carry to excess his eulogium of the poet. Whether Gower or he first wrote in English verse is not sufficiently clear; that both might not have been preceded by another in this path is not established by any very direct evidence; but be this as it may, composition in the vernacular tongues of Europe had already become common, the English language had risen into reputation so as to be shortly after established in all judicial proceedings, and the merit of Chaucer therefore, however great, does not amount to that of a man who has far outrun the progress of the times in which he lived.

An account of the state of poetry at that period in Europe is here introduced; in which the writers of the Norman or Romance tongue are decidedly preferred to the Provençal troubadours. The institution of the Parliaments or Courts of love, in which the nicest questions of love and gallantry were determined, comes in as an episode intimately connected with the poetry of this period. An account is given of William de Lorris's *Roman de la Rose* who flourished in the time of Henry III; and a very warm eulogium of his cotemporary Dante. Some well known incidents of Petrarch's life are recounted; and his coronation at Rome described, as it is *concluded* it must have produced a very powerful effect on the mind of Chaucer, who was then thirteen years of age.

The evidence that Chaucer wrote the poem of the Court of Love at the age of eighteen, rests upon the same vague and fanciful evidence with most of the other incidents of his life. It suits his biographer's purpose, and therefore it must be so. An analysis is given of this poem; and the idea deprecated, that the Canterbury tales are the only works of Chaucer worthy of attention.

A comparison which is here introduced between the ancient and modern English poetry is written in a temper, of which an opinion may be formed from the commencing sentence:—"Nothing can be more pernicious than the opinion, which idleness and an incurious temper alone have hitherto sufficed to maintain, that the modern writers of verse in any country are to be styled the poets of that country. This absurdity was never carried to a greater extreme than in the book entitled, Johnson's Lives of the most eminent English Poets. The first Poet in his Series is

Cowley; and if the title of his book were properly filled up, it would stand, Lives of the most Eminent English Poets, from the decline of poetry in England to the time of the author." From this general censure, he excepts Milton as the only poet in Johnson's series, to be compared with Spencer, Shakspeare, Fletcher, and some of their cotemporaries and predecessors. An attempt to vindicate Chaucer's style from the charge of being obsolete, naturally succeeds, as well as arguments to shew that his numbers are not inharmonious.

A controversy has been carried on between the admirers of the earlier and later poets of every country that has attained any considerable degree of refinement. Horace in his well known epistle to Augustus, ridicules with much humour those tastes which can relish nothing that is not seasoned with the rust of years. In his time, as in ours, there were critics who overlooked the regular structure, the condensed ideas, the polished language of the poetry of a more refined age; while they stretched their patience to peruse the tedious accumulation of half-formed lines which were thrown out at the first emerging from barbarism; and put their ingenuity to the rack to discover melodies and beauties which, like the ghosts of Shakspeare, are seen only by *their* eyes who are in the secret, but are invisible to all the rest of mankind. In Chaucer we find some happy expressions, many striking images and many traits of genuine humour; but to suppose that these can convey equal pleasure to the reader in the uncouth and antiquated style in which they are expressed, as when we find them in the finely-turned versification of the reign of Queen Anne, is an idea which could be entertained for a moment, only by the blindest enthusiasm. That Chaucer's "language is not more obscure than that of Spenser, and scarcely more than that of Shakspeare" is indeed asserted by our author; but any one may, by reading a single page of each of these authors, satisfy himself that this is the mere friendly exaggeration of a biographer.

To shew that the versification of Chaucer is not lame and inharmonious, the usual expedient is suggested of causing the final *e*, and other mute syllables to be sounded. The analogy of the early French poets is quoted, to shew that the sounding of syllables, now lost in prose, is still allowed to them by the national taste. There is however this striking difference between them and Chaucer, that *they* continue to be imitated by *all* the French poets to this day, and that therefore their versification is familiar, and altogether accords with the popular ideas of harmony; while *he* is imitated by no modern poet, and therefore his versification must appear to the national ear incorrect and inharmonious. There is another remarkable distinction between the early French poets and Chaucer, as Mr. Godwin himself remarks, that the former retain the mute syllables according to an invariable rule, whereas Chaucer either sinks or preserves them, as he finds convenient. This decisively proves that the French poetic language was already fixed in the time of those authors alluded to, while that of England, in the days of Chaucer, was still crude and unformed. But even with the arbitrary allowance of these mute syllables, his versification will not become harmonious, nor always correct in point of numbers. The accent is frequently placed on the last syllable of a word where we now place it on the first; and a syllable or two either wanting or exceeding at times disappoint the ear. That these were the faults of the times and not of Chaucer, we readily own; but they unquestionably render his versification unharmonious and unpleasant to a modern ear.

That our author here bestowed his praises on Chaucer without much concern about their justice, appears very evident in the sequel of the work, where he is frequently compelled to censure the long and idle digressions, and the disproportionate sentiments and figures, which would have been rejected by the poet of a more cultivated age. Dryden and Pope are particularly pointed out as being no poets worthy of regard: but if they imitated those who went before them, let it be remembered that Chaucer was in most instances little more than a translator from the Latin, Italian, and French. Mr. G. must also know that Pope and Dryden will continue to be read with delight by all their countrymen; while his "*popular book in modern English*" will never be able to rescue Chaucer from the cabinets of the antiquaries. That poet was indeed admirable in his day; and had he been destined to write in a later age, his works would still have been read with delight.

A description of the plague which happened in London in the year 1349 is introduced, because although Chaucer "has left no documents on the subject in his works, we may be assured that he saw many things at this time, and heard more, the recollection of which could never be effaced from his mind." Mr. G. however, a little after, *supposes* that the poet was all this while at a distance from the awful scene, writing poetry in some retired and peaceful village; which is indeed more likely than the former hypothesis, as he must have mentioned the calamity somewhere in his numerous works, had it made any very deep impression on his mind.

Chaucer from Cambridge is alleged to have removed to Oxford. This is a disputed point among biographers, maintained by Leland and other writers, and opposed by Mr. Tyrwhitt. Mr. G's principal argument in favour of it is, that his poem of Troilus and Creseide, which is generally allowed to have been a juvenile performance, is dedicated to Gower and Strode, two reputed Oxford scholars, with whom he *most probably* got acquainted at the university. This is evidently a tissue of conjectures, and leaves the point just where it was.

The *Troilus and Cresecide* is shewn to have been translated from the Latin of a poet named Lollius, by the evidences of Chaucer himself, Lydgate, and others, against the supposition of Mr. Tyrwhitt, who alledges it to be taken from the *Filostrato* of Boccaccio. An account of Boccaccio follows; and also a disquisition on the age of Lollius, which is attributed to the twelfth century. An analysis of the *Troilus and Cresecide* is given at some length; as well as of the sequel to this poem, which is stated by Mr. Urry to have been the production of Mr. Robert Henryson.

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schoolmaster of Dumfermling. From the introduction of Pandarus into the story, a personage first described and rendered active by Chaucer and the author from whom he translates, it is inferred that Shakspeare drew the chief incidents of his play Troilus and Cressida, from the poem of Chaucer. A comparison is instituted between the play and the poem, in which the preference is decidedly given to the former for variety of incident, and natural delineation of character; while the personages of the poem are asserted to be much more chaste, respectable, and *love-worthy*.

A long enquiry into the circumstances and characters of Strode and Gower, Chaucer's early friends, or probably his first patrons, produces nothing new nor very entertaining. The former was an eminent polemic divine; the latter a poet of eminence, who if he did not lead the way to Chaucer in the writing of English verse, at least furnished him with the model of his Canterbury tales.

Our author supports the opinion that Chaucer studied at Paris, although he advances no new argument in favour of it, but probabilities and suppositions; as indeed Mr. Tyrwhitt advances little more against it. Determined however, to be always at variance with the latter gentleman (a determination common among rival writers, to the great edification of their readers) Mr. G. *doubts* the accounts of Chaucer's studies in the Inner Temple. Not altogether to lose the benefit of the fact, however, he for a moment supposes the poet to become a law-student, and from thence proceeds to calculate the effects which the study of law, as conducted in his time, must have produced on his mind. The description of the course of law, at that time most likely to have been studied, is superficial, and the observations upon it apply rather to our own times. We are told that Chaucer quitted the study of the law, (did he ever undertake it?) because it is inconsistent with an ingenuous mind to "urge objections which he knows to be fallacious, and pass off a weak reason for a strong one." We do not here undertake to defend the gentlemen of the law against the insinuations which are thrown out upon their integrity; we shall only observe that this method of reasoning from the abuse of any thing against its utility, would lead to nothing else but a continual tumult of discontent and revolution, which could only be put an end to, by something too perfect for the nature of man being brought down by an angel, or devised by some supernatural philosopher. If there were no one to point out the claims between man and man, to expose the arts of the villain, and to refute the calumnies advanced against the weak and ignorant, how should the judge decide, or justice be awarded?

About this period of Chaucer's life, his poem of *Palamon and Arcite* is supposed to have been written. It was translated from the *Teseide* of Boccaccio, with some alterations. The neglect with which it was treated induced the author to abridge it, and it is now incorporated with the Canterbury tales. A conjecture of Lydgate's that Chaucer translated Dante is rejected for want of evidence. His translation of Boethius into prose was admired at the period when it was written.

Chaucer now emerges into public life. The respect paid to literature in that age and his early fame for poetry, were the principal causes of his preferment; and he was placed by Edward III. near the person of his younger son, John of Gaunt, according to the custom of that age. Much labour is spent in various parts of the work to shew that this king was the first patron of Chaucer; but little more than conjecture is offered in proof of this supposition. The residence granted him at Woodstock, the literary character of the Plantagenets, and of the court of Edward III. are the arguments to shew that this king promoted Chaucer for his poetical talents. There are some *salutary* observations introduced on the propriety of kings rewarding men of literary distinction with offices, whether sinecure or not.

The history of John of Gaunt, the great patron of Chaucer, now commences. The facts known respecting that prince are few; but the vacancies are filled up with descriptions of the forms of chivalry through which a young nobleman had in these days to pass, interspersed with the reflections natural to a young man in those circumstances. His courtship with his future consort Blanche is furnished out with all the minute circumstances of a modern novel; and an attempt is made to prove that the verses put into John of Gaunt's mouth in Chaucer's poem of *the Book of the Dutchess*, were actually written by that prince himself, from whence it is inferred that he was a great lover of poetry.

The first production of Chaucer after entering the service of the court is the whimsical poem of the *Parliament of the Birds*; the subject of the first part of which is Scipio's dream, and of the latter a convocation of birds. From this poem the chief fact we learn is, that Chaucer was a great lover of books. An outline of the poem entitled *Chaucer's Dream* succeeds; and much fanciful reasoning is employed to prove that it was written on the occasion of John of Gaunt's marriage; a supposition which appears sufficiently refuted by the person supposed to be Chaucer's mistress, being represented in the poem as the superior and protectress of the supposed lady Blanche; a liberty which our poet was too good a courtier to take with the high-born bride of his patron. Chaucer's mistress and future wife was the daughter of a native of Hanault, king at arms for the province of Guienne; and is supposed to have been maid of honour to the queen of Edward III.

Instead of descriptions of the manners and circumstances of the age in which he lived, Chaucer's Life now becomes variegated with its *history*. The expeditions and wars of Edward III., the Black Prince, and John of Gaunt are detailed and accompanied with ample reflections. The name of Chaucer indeed rarely appears, and the share he had in these transactions is extremely small; but his friends and patrons were concerned in them, and this is sufficient for the biographer. No new light is thrown on the history of these times; and the fanciful accounts of the *feelings and sentiments* of John of Gaunt and other personages are often insufferably tedious.

Chaucer, it appears, accompanied the English army to France in the year 1386; in what capacity history does not mention, although our author *takes it for granted* that he went as the friend and confidant of

John of Gaunt. That the poet however, quickly quitted the military profession from a love of the arts of peace, is inferred by the biographer from his most willingly dwelling, in his poems, on the scenes of peace and social life. Whether he was really actuated by the sentimental detestation of war and bloodshed, attributed to him, we shall not pretend to determine; but we can easily conceive that he early quitted the military profession, as his poems sufficiently prove that he loved his friend and his bottle, and other pleasures which are better relished out of the din of arms.

It is at this period that the *Romance of the Rose* is supposed to have been translated by Chaucer from the *Roman de la Rose* of William de Lorris and John de Meun. An analysis of this poem is given at great length, with an account of the origin and character of the mendicant friars against whom much of the work is directed. The mention of the Satire on Women in this poem, which was in a later age imitated by the French poet Regnier, *gives occasion* to an account not only of that writer, but of his cotemporary Malherbe, and the other French poets of the *sixteenth* century. Mr. G. has here unfortunately forgotten to point out the means by which these writers contributed to the formation of Chaucer's mind, and consequently to be allotted a place in his biography.

About the year 1367, Chaucer obtained a pension from the king, of twenty marks, which is calculated to equal £240 in our times. Two years afterwards he is supposed to have written the *Book of the Dutchess*, on occasion of the death of Blanche his patron's wife, which is here analysed. The death of queen Philippa in the same year is alleged to have been followed by his marriage, the lady being now her own mistress.

In 1372 Chaucer appears on an embassy to Genoa; and proof is attempted to be adduced that he, in the following year, visited Petrarch at Padua. The clerk of Oxenford, who is introduced in the Canterbury Tales, as relating the story of patient Grisildis, is made to say that he learned the tale "at Padowe, of a worthy clerk, Fraunceis Petrark." Now it appears that Petrarch actually did translate this tale into Latin from the Italian of Boccaccio; and Mr. G. supposes Chaucer's mentioning the former rather than the latter author, was intended to commemorate his interview with Petrarch, who had probably shewed him the Latin version when at Padua. On this slender foundation, our author's ingenuity contrives to raise a very pretty story, which our limits however prevent us from extracting for the amusement of our readers. We have here the motives of Chaucer to undertake the journey, his interview with Petrarca, the feelings of Chaucer on the occasion, the feelings of Petrarca, his reading to Chaucer his tale of patient Grisildis, the tone of their conversation, the request of Chaucer to have a copy of the tale, and his introduction by Petrarca to the works of Boccaccio. This is what we may call making the most of a thing.

The royal grant of a pitcher or gallon of wine to Chaucer, introduces an account of the usual consumption of wines at that period, which was in many instances already profuse. This grant of wine is supposed by our author to have given rise to grants of a similar nature to Ben Jonson and other poets-laureat, in the same manner as Chaucer's accidental burial in Westminster Abbey gave rise to the burial of succeeding poets there. As the grant was for a daily quantity of wine, it is inferred that it must have been consumed daily; and that his revenue, to accommodate his other expenditure to this consumption, must at least have equalled £1000 *per annum* in our times. Many other inferences are drawn with regard to Chaucer's convivial habits, and his love of expence. By the patronage of John of Gaunt he was afterwards appointed Comptroller of the Customs in the port of London. The Prince's speech to him on this occasion is *imagined*. The supposed grant of a second pension is controverted.

The poem of *the House of Fame*, is supposed to have been written at this period of the poet's life, and is therefore here analyzed. There is some reason to think it was borrowed from a poem of the middle ages as yet undiscovered; and from the third book is taken the design of Pope's Temple of Fame.

The fortunes of Chaucer rose and fell with those of his patron John of Gaunt. He was more than once employed on embassies of importance to the continent; he had conferred on him the wardship of Edmund Staplegate, a man of rank; and at the commencement of the reign of Richard II. he shared in the royal munificence when his patron was in favour at court. The misfortunes of John of Gaunt, in consequence of the hatred of the London populace and the opposition party, are supposed by Mr. G. to be lamented by Chaucer in his poem of *The Complaint of the Black Knight*. This supposition, which is supported by many whimsical and wire-drawn reasonings, is little to the credit of Chaucer, as its tendency would be to transform a pretty enough love-complaint into an extravagant allegory. The common opinion that it refers to John of Gaunt's distresses during his courtship is much more natural, and is even allowed to be so by Mr. G. himself; although the other supposition is the most convenient as it affords matter for a speculation of twenty pages.

Chaucer is supposed to have been treated with great kindness by Anne of Bohemia, the queen of Richard II, and to have written, at her command, *The Legend of gode Women*, as an atonement for his former abuse of the sex. In the analysis of this poem which is avowedly a translation, we find that the poets of the days of chivalry discarded Venus from the throne of Love, and substituted the heroine Alcestis, whose invincible attachment induced her to rescue the life of her husband with the sacrifice of her own. The mention of the virtues ascribed to the *daisy* in this poem, introduces an account of the poem of the *Floure and the Lefe*, which has been modernised by Dryden; as also the origin of the poetical adoration paid to the daisy, the flower into which Alcestis is supposed to have been metamorphosed after her death. An account is here given of the French poets under the reign of Charles V. and in particular of Froissart who is allowed to have been the inventor of ballads, sonnets, and other light species of composition; but these compositions were common before his time.

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There are two subjects which, besides the description of some persons engaged in public affairs, occupy a very large portion of the work before us, and are introduced in various parts; the one is an attempt to vindicate John of Gaunt from all the aspersions thrown on him by historians, in which our author is at times more zealous than successful; the other is an account of Wicliffe and the progress of his doctrines. This reformer in general meets with high praise, but is censured for being too much a Calvinist. Our author in perfect unison with his ideas above-mentioned of religion, here informs us, that "in religion we can never have a system, uniform, genial, and nutritive of the purest affections and habits, without the solemnities of worship, the decencies of architecture, the friendly alliance of harmonious sounds, or the fragrance of delicious odours." It is curious to observe with what designing ingenuity the *solemnities of worship*, those outward expressions of an inward feeling, are here mingled and confounded with certain devices to amuse and gratify the external senses; devices, which custom alone, and no natural tie has connected with the adoration of the Supreme Being. It is in the same spirit that our author tells us "Wicliffe and his partisans did much at least of temporary mischief, in disturbing the *visions and poetic forms* of morality and religion."

The great error of Wicliffe and the Lollards, their pusillanimous dread of the threats of the church, which protracted reformation for a century, is defended upon the general principle that a man when threatened with death, ought to say any thing required of him, rather than risque the loss of his life. "I ought not," says our author, "to sign a paper containing sentiments opposite to my own, to obtain a sum of money or an office; but I would as willingly do this at the requisition of a chief justice as of a highwayman, if, while he grasps the paper in one hand, he presents a pistol or a halter with the other. The man who acts thus towards me I regard as a ruffian, and there is no impropriety in temporising to a certain degree with a person of that sort. Nothing ought to be refused by me when death is the alternative of refusal, except that which would so destroy my character and honour as to make the further prolongation of my life a burthen and a curse."

To us every direct violation of what we are convinced is truth, appears to be of the latter class. No maxim can be more dangerous to society than such a principle of temporising: it indeed exceeds the Jesuitical indulgence of mental reservation, as it may be alike applied to all transactions civil and religious. If the fear of death is allowed to give a licence for every species of falsehood which is not attended with the last degree of turpitude, the fear of some lesser evil may naturally be supposed sufficient to justify a falsehood of considerably less turpitude. When this last degree of turpitude will be incurred is not fixed; I may deny my religion, renounce the obligation of every tie which society has over my conscience, be guilty of the most flagrant perjury, yet still hope, that as my life was at stake, the world will not be so very unkind as to account me infamous. Nay, if I can keep my perjury from detection, why not incur this venial crime to serve lesser interests? Or why maintain any obligation which may affect my fortune or obstruct my inclinations, when a little convenient falsehood may acquit me of it, and when I can at the same time hood-wink the eyes of the world? The dissolution of all faith, all confidence between man and man, are the direct consequences of such doctrines.

A supposition, which is controverted, that Chaucer wrote some poems tending to promote the cause of reformation, introduces an account of the *Visions of Pierce Plowman*. This tissue of poem is supposed to have been written by one Robert Langland, between whom and Chaucer a comparison is instituted to the advantage of the latter.

The contest about the Mayoralty of London, in which Chaucer took so decided a part that he was obliged to seek refuge in exile, is interwoven with an account of the personages and transactions of the court of Richard II. Nothing of novelty occurs here, except the fanciful motives adduced for actions, and the unqualified invectives against courts, which are represented as "contemplating murder under the forms of law, with perfect steadiness, and with no compunction." The mask is here completely thrown aside, and we find the determined enemy of governments and courts of law, making use of particular acts of oppression in a barbarous age, to cast a general odium on the essential guardians of social order.

The account of Chaucer's exile, return, and imprisonment is filled up with a number of conjectures as to his circumstances and sentiments, but little is produced of undoubted fact. He was after his imprisonment stripped of his offices, as it is alleged, by Thomas of Woodstock, and obliged afterwards by necessity to sell his pensions. It was in prison that Chaucer wrote his *Testament of Love*, a work in imitation of Boethius's Consolations of Philosophy, but much inferior in point of style and thought. Love, instead of philosophy, is the personage that comes to console the poet. Over the impeachment of his former accomplices, by which Chaucer procured his liberty, a veil is attempted to be thrown. On the principles advanced above by Mr. G. it was scarcely a crime.

Chaucer being again restored to royal favour, was appointed Clerk of the Works with a salary equivalent to £057 in our times. This employment, however, he soon after resigned, and retired to Woodstock, where he composed a little system of astronomy for his youngest son, called the *Conclusions of the Astrolabie*, and also his greatest work the Canterbury Tales. The design of writing the latter performance is attributed to a quarrel with Gower, which made the collection of English poems by that writer, under the title *De Confessione Amantis*, appear to Chaucer an attempt to rob him of his laurels, and reduced him to take up his pen at the advanced age of above threescore. A comparison is here introduced of the Orlando Furioso, the Decamerone, and the Canterbury Tales.

The marriage of John of Gaunt with Catharine Lady Swinford, the supposed sister of Chaucer's wife, seems to have procured for Chaucer from that prince, a gift of the castle of Donnington in Berks, where it is alleged the poet afterwards resided. From a patent

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of protection granted to him by the king subsequent to this, it is inferred that he was afterwards employed in active life. The conduct of Chaucer in bestowing no compliments on Henry IV. on his successful usurpation, is elaborately panegyrised; and the poem of the *Emptie Purse*, where mention is made of this monarch, is supposed not to be a genuine production.

Chaucer died on the 25th of October 1400, in the 72d year of his age, according to the received chronology, leaving behind him one son, Thomas Chaucer, who afterwards rose to high dignities in the state.

A chapter in which the character of Chaucer and his writings are recapitulated, and further embellished, concludes the work. To each volume an appendix is added, containing some extracts which could not so well be incorporated in the body of the performance.

From the ample analysis which we have given of this work, little further is necessary to explain our ideas of it to the reader. The life of Chaucer himself, the ostensible and primary object of the work, occupies but a comparatively small part of it. The authenticated incidents of Chaucer's life are still extremely few: nor has Mr. G. with all his industry, been able to refute the position of Mr. Tyrwhitt, that they may be comprised in a few quarto pages. The *supposed* transactions, motives, feelings, and connections of Chaucer, indeed occupy pages by scores; but however amusing these may be to some readers of congenial souls, we must own that, for our part, we could have wished our attention relieved at times by a few matters of fact.

Mr. G's researches among the ancient records we do not question; we only lament that he has not been more successful in procuring us some *new* information on the subjects of which he treats; for if we retrench "*his workings of fancy*," we shall find little left that has not already been illustrated even by modern historians. The personages of the court of Edward III. are still skeletons; and the thin covering here thrown over them is easily distinguishable from solid flesh and blood.

Of the plan of the work we have already expressed our opinion; and when we attend to the execution, the vices of the plan are still more conspicuous. To maintain the connection of the poet with the materials dragged into his biography, the method usually employed by our author is to expatiate on the effects of these on the poet's mind. By this means we have a sentimental figure of the nineteenth century conjured up before us, full of feelings and reflections, which certainly, if we may judge from his writings, never entered the brain of honest Geoffry Chaucer. When a fact, tolerably authenticated, of Chaucer's life, is at last got hold of, it is often so run down with reasonings and deductions, that we are glad when the author gets back again to the gayer regions of fancy.

The picture, left on the mind of the reader, of the circumstances intended to be delineated by the author, is indeed sufficiently distinct; but the impression of their truth is much weakened by their being frequently represented in a particular manner *to serve a purpose*. This accommodating mode of history is particularly the failing of biographers, who are almost always partisans. Every circumstance is made to conduce to the honour of Chaucer, of John of Gaunt, and of other favourite characters; nor is a little twist in the history now and then thought an unjustifiable licence, when it tends to support the moral, political, or religious opinions of the author.

The language of Mr. Godwin in general deserves praise. It is an easy, simple, perspicuous, and flowing style; free from that grave bombast and inversion which perpetually annoy the readers of most of our modern histories. Yet there are particular blemishes in the language of this work which deserve much reprehension. The use of abstract terms in an undefined and incorrect manner, where the reader is obliged to pause and ponder before he can divine a meaning, has of late become a great and general blemish in writing. It is chiefly with faults of this sort, that the style of the present work is polluted. We have the word *intellect* perpetually recurring to the eye, and so employed, that the reader is almost always obliged to dwell upon it in order to ascertain its precise meaning. When we are told that the schoolmen were (1) "the illustrious champions of human intellect," and when we meet with the expression (2) "the highest geniuses and great masters of intellect"—we are at a loss what ideas to affix to the expression. (3) "Speculative tenets of opinion," seems merely equivalent to 'speculative opinions of opinion,' for what are 'speculative tenets' but 'opinions?' To talk of the (4) "*concoction* of a great mind," of "*defecating the grossness* of the mind," an expression more than once repeated, is to introduce cooks and refiners at once as the active personages in the laboratory of the mind. Instances of affected expression are not unfrequent throughout, even in description which ought to be perfectly perspicuous and simple. The slender pillars of the Gothic style of architecture, with their bulky shafts, are compared to (5) "the humble vehicle through which an English or German rustic inhales the fumes of the Indian weed"—in plain language, a tobacco-pipe. There is at times a verbosity that tires, and ideas are sometimes wire-drawn till they become obscure. The frequent repetition of circumstances, and eternal recapitulations cannot fail often to fatigue and provoke the reader.

To make a "popular work," however, as the author himself expresses it, seems to have been his chief object, and if that is gained, he and his *bookseller* will be satisfied. His transaction with the bookseller indeed, lets us into an usual literary mode of speculation in this age. Mr. G. did not come to the bookseller with a digested and finished performance in his hand. He seems to have begun to write with the intention of putting into his work whatever popular materials fell in his way, to as great an extent as he imagined the curiosity of the public about Chaucer, would induce them to purchase: and when at last his bookseller assured him that he had written as much "as the public would allow the title of his book to authorise," he prudently wound up the conclusion as quickly as possible. Mr. G's apology for being shorter than he intended on the last fifteen years of Chaucer's life, we willingly accept, as the history

(1) Vol. I. page 19.—(2) p. 380.—(3) p. 18.—(4) p. 257.—(5) p. 145.

of Henry the Fourth's reign, is already sufficiently adorned with the flowers of fancy in Shakspeare's plays. Had Mr. G. however, been extremely anxious to introduce even this episode, he might readily have fallen upon an expedient to do so, without any additional *expence* at least to the public—by rendering the letter-press something more than equal in bulk to the margin, or by saving the margin, and thus reducing the two quartos, to two moderate sized octavo volumes.

Ω.

An Historical Review of the State of Ireland, from the Invasion of that Country under Henry the Second, to its Union with Great-Britain, on the 1st of January 1801. By Francis Plowden, *Esq. 3 vols. 4to. London*, 1803. *Egerton.*

The connection between England and Ireland, which has now subsisted for many centuries, is an object of the greatest importance, and it is somewhat wonderful that no historical account of it, worthy in any high degree of the public approbation, has yet made its appearance. Scotland has been much more fortunate, and her history has been exhibited in one of the most finished forms in which any of the productions of the historic muse have appeared in modern times; while no detail of Irish affairs has been given which a man would take up for the gratification of his taste, or indeed with any great hope of improving his mind by philosophical views of a portion of human affairs. Yet Ireland has given birth to authors of the greatest eminence. And Irishmen are no less actuated than other men by those associations which unite our personal vanity with the fancied importance of our country. The great influence too which the connection of Ireland with England has had upon the fortune of the latter country, ought, as it should seem, to have prompted some of the English political philosophers, to undertake the elucidation of so important a subject. The great historian of England has not overlooked it among the numerous objects which fill his instructive volumes; and the most satisfactory sketch of Irish affairs before the public is probably that which is to be found in Hume's History of England. But it is sufficiently obvious that it was inconsistent with the plan of his work, to enter into that minute investigation of the Irish history which the importance of the subject required; and one of the remarks which we think is most strongly suggested by the outline which he has exhibited, is, that a more full and minute delineation is greatly to be desired.

Leland's history does not deserve to be depreciated. He had a great task to perform, to steer a middle course between the prejudices and misrepresentations of the English annalists on the one hand, and of the Irish on the other; and no little merit is acquired in having done all which he did. But still we would not follow Leland in all things as an authority, even with respect to the representation of facts. With respect to those general and philosophical views which enable the historian to trace the facts he records up to the great and universal laws of human nature, and human affairs, and which throw so much interest, and instruction into his narrative, Dr. Leland has no claim to applause. Even in regard to the elegant contexture of his narrative very little can be said; and the perusal of Dr. Leland's history is by every body regarded as a dry and irksome task. Very few persons, accordingly, except Irishmen full of national partiality, or Englishmen curious in every thing relating to the history of their country, have ever read the book.

We very deeply regret this fact, and are strongly of opinion, that had a history of Ireland, written with due search after the truth, with a real philosophical spirit, and with so much elegance as to have rendered it as popular a book as Robertson's history of Scotland, been in the hands of every body for the last twenty years, it would have contributed in an amazing degree to bring the minds of the people both on this side of St. George's channel, and the other, to that sound state of moderation, forbearance, forgiveness, and benevolence, in which it is so much to be wished that they were placed. We acknowledge, however, it is scarcely to be wondered at, that authors should have been deterred by the difficulty of the task. The dependance upon England in which Ireland has been placed, makes all her affairs be looked upon in a secondary, and subordinate light. And the violent, and barbarous contentions between the different tribes of people, of which the chief part of her history is composed, present no inviting subject, either to the reader or the writer. Yet we know that some of the most interesting portions of history which we have, refer part of them to very subordinate, and part of them to very disgusting transactions. And we are certain that the union of genius and philosophy, might render the history of Ireland highly instructive, and highly interesting.

That we have not found such a history in the present work of Mr. Plowden, we are obliged to declare, and shall probably not disappoint the author much by this declaration, for it is impossible to suppose that he has either intended or imagined, that his book should be regarded as a finished history of Ireland. He expressly states that his great object is to record the progress, and circumstances, and to point out the probable consequences of the Union lately effected; and that the review which he exhibits of the preceding history is chiefly undertaken for the purpose of throwing light upon that last important transaction. Accordingly the whole of the history preceding the reign of George the Third is dispatched in less than one half of the first volume; while that reign fills no less than two and a half large quarto volumes. We shall confine ourselves in the present number of our Journal to an account of the review of the preceding part, that portion of the history of Ireland which is prior to the reign of George the Third. That reign, so memorable in the history of Ireland, will require a Number by itself.

As an historical sketch of Irish affairs down to the commencement of the reign of our present monarch, this first part of Plowden's work, must be regarded as extremely defective. The object of these sketches may be twofold; either to ascertain, by the rigid and careful researches of the antiquarian, the precise facts of preceding ages, stripped of the misrepresentations both of superstition and of national prejudice; or to exhi-

bit a philosophical view of government, and of the state of society and manners in the period under review, founded on the general principles of human nature, and the facts distinctly ascertained. Of the first we have a very fine specimen in Lord Hailes' Annals of Scotland, and of the second in Millar's Historical View of the English government; and a finished history ought to unite the lights resulting from both these labours. Plowden's Review is not highly distinguished by either species of merit. It is very far from a full, and accurate, and pure exhibition of the undoubted facts of the Irish history. The cautious, patient, scrutinizing temper, which thinks it almost an equal disgrace to be imposed upon, as to falsify with regard to a fact, is no part of Mr. Plowden's character. He often appears to be very easily satisfied in respect to evidence, and a certain degree of rashness in the admission of facts is apparent even on the face of his narrative. To the other species of merit, that of a philosophical and satisfactory analysis of the events of the period which he reviews, he is equally little entitled to any claim. It is a very imperfect conception indeed, which from his delineation we are enabled to form of the state of society, either political or domestic, of Ireland, during the ages which he reviews; nor are we at all instructed how the events and changes which took place grew out of the circumstances of the times, and were the natural result of the peculiar condition of the inhabitants of Ireland.

In reviewing the early history of his native country Mr. Plowden had a peculiar object; and to the attainment of this object he seems to have thought that an historical sketch, distinguished for either of the virtues above described, was not necessary. The end proposed by this work is to prove what good policy it is on the part of Great Britain to treat Ireland with indulgence and generosity, in particular with regard to religious freedom. To accomplish this design the author thought it of importance to shew us in how very different a manner Ireland had heretofore been treated by Great Britain; with what severity, injustice, and oppression; and how many bad effects had flowed from this odious system. It was not necessary for this design to make a complete collection of all the facts in Irish story. It was sufficient to bring forward those only which were calculated to establish the position of the author, and to shew that they were sufficiently numerous to form the character of the times. The sketch therefore of the early history of Ireland, here presented, is distinguished by an endeavour to soften the representations, given by the English annalists, of the extreme barbarity, turbulence, and enmity to the English of the native Irish; and by an endeavour to exhibit in stronger colours than these analysts have done, the oppression and injustice, exercised over the Irish by the English invaders, and the English government.

It is unfortunate for the cause which Mr. Plowden espouses, that he has executed his design with little or no art; and has therefore left himself very open to the attacks of those who dislike his opinions. It is easy to make a number of specious criticisms, which to persons who glance slightly upon the subject, will have very much the appearance of destroying the credibility of the book. Such criticisms have accordingly been made; and we have already observed very bitter invectives on the work, in more than one periodical publication of the day. We are nevertheless compelled to acknowledge that in the general positions of the author we are entirely convinced that he is well-founded, and though he has not brought forward his proofs with much skill, that there is yet evidence enough, in his book, completely to establish the great points for which he contends.

The history of the connection of Ireland with England commences only with the invasion made upon Ireland by Henry the second. At this period therefore it is, that Mr. Plowden's review properly begins. But he favours his reader with an introductory chapter on the preceding history of Ireland, in which we cannot say that fable is always distinguished from fact; nor facts of importance always distinguished from those of none; nor is any natural connection often perceivable in the order in which the facts and the fables follow or precede one another. The chief points which he endeavours to establish are, the extraordinary antiquity of the Irish, the excellence of their native character, and the high degree of civilization which they had acquired previous to the "ill-fated" visit of the English. He is fully convinced that the Irish were a colony of Phenicians, planted directly by that ancient and celebrated people, from the coast of Syria. The only thing resembling a reason for this odd idea is the similarity between the Irish language, and some Carthaginian lines quoted in Plautus. But it is strange that Mr. Plowden should not have reflected that the language of the Irish is the Celtic, and was common in the time of Julius Cæsar, to the inhabitants of Ireland, of Britain, of Gaul, and of several other nations both in Europe and in Asia, and that into whatever retired and mountainous corners the remains of the Celtic race were driven by the inundations of the Gothic, the language of that race is still to be found; in Ireland, in the mountains of Scotland, in those of Wales and Cornwall, in the province of Brittany in France, and in that of Arragon in Spain. Bochard, in his accurate memoirs of the ancient history of Switzerland, says, that any person who understands the language of the Grisons, and the Celtic, may be convinced that the latter is still in a great measure alive in that country. Baxter the author of the celebrated glossary of British antiquities, a native of Cornwall, and completely acquainted with the Celtic language, affirms that the language of the Armenians contains at this day a great number of Celtic words; and says that he found this language of great service to him in learning the languages of the east. The coincidence of the Celtic language with some of the most celebrated languages of antiquity, and its vast extent among the ancient nations are very remarkable facts. The coincidence of the Celtic and the Phenician is so great that they are evidently dialects of the same tongue. The Hebrew, the Chaldean, and the Phenician were only different dialects of one language. And the derivation

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of the Greek from the Phenician has been sufficiently proved. The coincidence again of the language of the Thracians, and of the Scythians, or Celto-Scythians, as they were sometimes called by the Greeks, with that of the Phenicians has been taken notice of by several ancient authors. Herodotus remarks that it was a uniform tradition among the Scythians, that their ancestors anciently inhabited upper Asia; and it was plain that the people of Bactria, Hircania, Margiana, the neighbourhood of mount Caucasus, and the shores of the Caspian Sea were of the same race.

The excellent qualities ascribed by Plowden to the character of the early Irish are the qualities of all rude and simple people, placed in tolerably happy circumstances. As they were never subdued by the Romans, they remained ignorant of the arts and civilization, as well as of the vices, communicated by these conquerors. By their distant situation they remained equally free from the incursions of the Gothic nations, and during several centuries of extreme confusion throughout the rest of Europe, continued in tranquillity. While the different families, therefore, or petty tribes of the inhabitants were not much crowded together, and enjoyed in the fertility of the island an easy subsistence, strangers to industry, and to the concomitant habits of avarice, they were in a most favourable situation for the exertions of generosity and friendship, and the acquisition of that degree of refinement which is attainable in the pastoral ages. The specimens of Celtic poetry lately published, and claimed respectively by the Irish, and the West Highlanders of Scotland, both of whom may in this case be considered as one people, are sufficient evidence, that such both of the soft and gentle, and of the awful and sublime virtues as have been ascribed to the pastoral and heroic ages, were possessed by the Irish.

The freedom in which Ireland for several centuries remained from the confusions in which the invasions of the barbarians involved the other countries of Europe, was extremely favourable to the diffusion of civilization and knowledge. It appears accordingly that in that extinction of knowledge, which seemed to have taken place in Europe in the seventh century, some feeble sparks were preserved alive in Ireland, where under the protection of the christian clergy a number of schools had been established, which, compared with those in the other parts of Europe, were in a very flourishing condition. We are informed by Bede that it was common for persons of distinction among the Anglo-Saxons, and in other parts of the continent, to send their children to these schools; and for such persons as were fond of a learned, and contemplative life to retire thither for the sake of the company, and the tranquillity which they met with. Few persons but have heard of the learning which in the thickest darkness of the middle ages was collected, and found an asylum in the monastery founded by St. Columba, an Irish monk, on the island of I-Columb-Kill, on the western coast of the highlands of Scotland.

In the sketch of the history of this period an account was required of the mode in which the people were classed, and the different classes distinguished from one another; of the state of property, and the laws by which it was regulated; of that power, or powers to which the enactment and execution of laws was intrusted; of the nature of the industry of the people, and of the mode in which they associated with one another. All these subjects are touched upon; but in so disordered and injudicious a manner, that the account though not erroneous in any essential point, must yet be pronounced, in reality, a bad one.

The first chapter of Plowden's "review" comprehends the period, from the invasion in the time of Henry II. to the reformation under Henry VIII. This interval is about 400 years, and is reckoned by the author highly important. Because, since the advocates for severe measures against the Irish lay peculiar stress on the irreconcileable nature of the religion of the Irish, and insist that it is the enmity which this religion engenders in their breasts against the protestants, which is the cause of all the discord which exists between them, it is interesting to see what friendship existed, when the inhabitants were all of one religion. If the oppression of the English was equally heavy, and the desire of vengeance on the part of the Irish equally intense, as afterwards, it is vain to lay the disorders which exist to the account of religion.

Mr. Plowden confesses that the fair picture of tranquillity, civilization and learning which he draws of Ireland had ceased to exist, some time previous to the invasion of the English; "and that this latter part of the Irish history presents to us a continued scene of intestine dissention, turbulence and faction. The truth is, that as Ireland became more populous, and the families or tribes, into which the people were divided became more numerous, the causes of quarrelling were more frequent, and the leaders of these more numerous tribes became actuated by larger views of ambition. The repetition of scenes of violence and outrage, of course rendered the manners of the people more ferocious.

It is clearly the object of the author, in this chapter, to prove that the behaviour of England towards Ireland, during the period which it comprehends, was unjust, oppressive and cruel. This has strongly excited the indignation of those persons who are prejudiced against Ireland, and some very severe strictures have been published on the chapter. But here too, in our opinion, the author is more liable to the censure of the impartial critic, on account of his manner, than of his matter. It is vain and senseless to attempt to controvert the proofs that Ireland during this period was used ill by England. Mild and liberal treatment was not in the character of the times. The situation, besides, of the two people in Ireland itself, rendered the most rancorous animosity between them almost unavoidable. The English settlers were regarded by the natives as a band of plunderers, who had stripped them of a part of their property; and were meditating to take advantage of every opportunity to seize upon the whole, and reduce them to the utmost subjection and wretchedness. The English regarded the natives as beings burning with an insatiable desire not only to expel them from their possessions and from the island, but to inflict upon their bodies every indignity and torment. With these dispositions, and in the uncul-

tivated state of both people, it is not to be wondered at, that they should often conduct their hostilities with extraordinary ferocity, and acquire habits of great barbarity.

It is impossible too not to be convinced that the conduct of the government in England was not calculated to soften but rather to exasperate these bitter animosities. The new inhabitants were called the Irish within the pale; the old, the Irish without the pale. The former were accounted subjects of the crown of England, governed by the laws of England, and receiving such protection and assistance as the government found it convenient to afford. The Irish without the pale were regarded as enemies by the English government, denied the protection of the laws; "so," says Sir John Davies, "as every Englishman might oppress, spoil, and kill them without controulment." Even those parts of the country which the new inhabitants had not been able to wrest from the old, were consigned away by nominal grants of the crown; and an eternal war was thus engendered between the actual and the nominal possessors. At a time when in reality no more than a third part of the kingdom was in possession of the English, the whole is said to have been parcelled among ten proprietors.

The state of opposition between the two people affected, as was natural, the opinion entertained by each of the character of the other; and the cotemporary writers represent the Irish of this period, as disgraced by a greater portion of ferocity and barbarity, than the rude inhabitants of other countries. This too has been urged by later writers as a just cause of the extreme severity exercised toward them by the English government. But on a closer inspection there appears no ground whatever for this opinion; and any harsh features which appear in their character are fairly imputable to the harsh treatment they met with. The customs which antiquaries and historians have pointed out and collected, as peculiar to the Irish, are not such as indicate any uncommon degree of barbarism and ferocity; but on the contrary, when compared with those of other nations, exhibit that striking resemblance of lines and features, which may be remarked in the inhabitants of every country before the advancement of arts and civilization.

From the reign of Henry the Second to the accession of the house of Tudor, the primitive settlers from England derived little or no assistance from government, and were left to preserve, and to increase their possessions, and to struggle with the natives as they best could. The interpositions of the crown were feeble and transitory. The distresses of King John and of Henry the third; the schemes of Edward the first for the conquest of Scotland; the wars carried on by the subsequent princes in France; and the long contention between the rival houses of York and Lancaster, deprived the English monarchs both of time and means for supporting, or increasing their authority in Ireland. The accession of Henry VII. restored tranquillity to England, and enabled the sovereign to turn more attention to his Irish dominions. It produced, at the same time, an exaltation of the prerogative, the effect of which was distinctly felt in both countries. In Ireland two objects seem to have been in the view of the crown; to extend a regular policy over the country; and to render the Irish government subordinate to that of England. We will mention what was done to effect these objects, as Mr. Plowden has been severely censured for passing it over. By an act, under the direction of Sir Edward Poynings, the lord-deputy, all the statutes lately made in England, of a public nature, were rendered valid in Ireland. This was, no doubt, an extensive improvement. But in respect to the altering of the oppression exercised by the crown it was counteracted by the other great measure attempted, which was to acquire a negative before debate upon all the determinations of the parliament. Besides, as the practical system of severity was not at all relaxed in this reign, there could be no particular reason for Mr. Plowden to mark it as any great exception to the general system of behaviour maintained during the period in which he chose to arrange it.

In this chapter too the defects of Mr. Plowden as a writer are extremely visible. He knows not what use to make of the proofs which he possesses, and often states them in such a manner, as exposes them to objections to which they are not justly liable. In respect of style he is below criticism.

From the time of Henry the Eighth, a new era commences in the history of Ireland. To the causes of dislike, hatred and dissention which arose from the injuries the different parties had inflicted upon one another, religious differences yielded a new, and large accession. What the circumstances were in the condition of the Irish which led them to adhere to their old superstition, when it was abandoned by the rest of the British empire, is not an enquiry suited to the genius of Mr. Plowden. He does not, accordingly, meddle with it. The period preceding this era the author makes the first part of his history; that between this era and the revolution under William and Mary, he comprehends in his second part; and the remaining period down to the completion of the union with England, is included in the third part.

We will not undertake the task of following Mr. Plowden with any degree of minuteness through his long and numerous pages. We shall content ourselves with making such general observations as we think are best calculated to give our readers without many words an idea of the nature, and merits of the book. In beginning his second part the author observes, "that it has been too prevalent with most writers since the reformation, to lay indiscriminately to the account of that great innovation in our national church, the various struggles, revolutions, and convulsions that afterwards happened in the state." In his review of the succeeding part of the history, accordingly, it is a principal aim to set in a strong light the dissentions and disorders which arose from other causes, and to prove that the greater part of the evils which have afflicted Ireland, have been produced by the impolitic severity and injustice of the English government; and not by any irreconcileable alienation of mind created by difference of religious opinion. In prosecuting this end we will not say that Mr. Plowden has always stated the effects of the difference of

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religious opinions so strongly as they deserved. He often exhibits them without reserve; and there is every appearance of sincerity, and none whatever of an intention to falsify in the book. But it is evident that he himself has been accustomed to consider the religious differences which have subsisted in Ireland as the cause of but a small part of the animosity, and confusion, and unhappiness in which that country has been always involved; and that he has the strongest desire to recommend this opinion to his readers. The conclusion which we have formed from the knowledge which we have been able to obtain of Irish affairs is, that religious differences have had a greater share in producing the mischiefs and unhappiness in Ireland, than as represented by Mr. Plowden. But at the same time it is our conviction that he has not a little reason for the opinion he has formed. It is at any rate nearer the truth than theirs is, who overlooking every other particular in the history, have contented themselves with railing against the pernicious effects of the Roman Catholic religion, and the barbarity of the Irish; and though the state of religious opinion has been a great source of evil in Ireland, it has not been the greatest. All the causes which obstructed coalition, and maintained contention and disorder, previous to the reformation, existed for a long time after, only a little varied by the varying temper of the times, and would have produced nearly the same effects as formerly, though no difference of religious opinions had taken place. We see too, how completely in some of the German states, people of the Protestant and Catholic religions have been incorporated in political union, without much wisdom employed by the government to effect this union, only because no measures particularly bad have been taken to prevent it. What, but some singular mismanagement should have prevented this same thing from taking place in Ireland? But religious dissensions have done harm to the peace of Ireland, no less by embittering the Protestants against the Catholics, than the Catholics against the Protestants. It is with difficulty at the present day that we can form a conception of the rancour and detestation which for two centuries after the Reformation filled the breast of a Protestant towards a Papist. That this had the strongest effect in preventing the system of harsh, and ungenerous treatment, which was dictated by the temper of a rude age, from being greatly altered by the improved temper of a more civilized period is undoubted. And at the same time it is reasonable to suppose that the enthusiasm inspired by a strong religious sentiment, prompted the Irish to more frequent, and desperate attempts at revenge.

During the reigns which preceded the revolution, Ireland partook of the arbitrary measures which flowed from the system of government established in England, while the severity of that system was heightened in the former country, by all those unfortunate circumstances, already alluded to, which had been so productive of discord and misery from the time of Henry II. Severe strictures have been made on particular statements of the author with regard to this period, and several of them are very liable to criticism. Still, however, the general picture of the government and of the country, which he has exhibited, is but too correct, and he has furnished sufficient documents to prove incontestibly that it is so. The picture, however, is certainly very coarsely and unskilfully drawn.

The establishment of a system of political freedom in England at the revolution ought to have been attended with a similar establishment in Ireland. "But," says Plowden, "whatever civil advantages were gained, or established at that epoch in England, vainly do the Irish look up to it as the era of their commencement or improvement of constitutional liberty. Then more than ever was Ireland treated as a conquered people, its independence violated, its national consequence and dignity debased. It appears to have been the systematic policy of the British cabinet of that day, not only to trample on the rights of the individuals, through their immediate governors, but to extinguish the very idea of an independent legislature in Ireland." This representation the author has thought proper to confirm by the opinion of an author and statesman, of very high authority; he has quoted a passage from Mr. Burke's Letter to Sir Hercules Langrishe, which is so remarkable that we cannot help transcribing it. "By the total reduction of Ireland in 1691, the ruin of the native Irish, and in a great measure too, of the first races of the English, was completely accomplished. The new interest was settled with as solid a stability as any thing in human affairs can look for. All the penal laws of that unparalleled code of oppression which were made after the last event, were manifestly the effects of national hatred and scorn towards a conquered people, whom the victors delighted to trample upon, and were not afraid to provoke. They were not the effects of their fears but of their security. They who carried on this system, looked to the irresistible force of Great-Britain for their support in their acts of power. They were quite certain that no complaints of the natives would be heard on this side of the water, with any other sentiments than those of contempt and indignation. Their cries seemed only to augment their torture. Machines, which could answer their purpose so well, must be of an excellent contrivance. Indeed, at that time in England the double name of the complainants, Irish and Papists (it would be hard to say singly which was the most odious) shut up the hearts of every one against them. Whilst that temper prevailed in all its force to a time within our memory, every measure was pleasing and popular, just in proportion as it tended to harass and ruin a set of people, who were looked upon as enemies to God and man; and indeed as a race of bigotted savages, who were a disgrace to human nature itself."

In all the facts which are brought forward to support this representation, in tracing the history from the revolution to the beginning of the present reign, perhaps the author is not completely supported. That facts too might be brought forward to soften, and alter some features in the picture which he has drawn, we are perfectly aware. But of the general resemblance between the picture and the reality, we are well convinced; and we think that no one who impartially considers the evidence he has produced will be of a contrary opinion. M.

(To be continued.)

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A Sermon preached on the late Fast-Day, Wednesday, October 19, 1803, *at the Parish Church of Hatton, Warwickshire. By* Samuel Parr, *LL.D.* 31 *pp. 4to. London* 1803. *Mawman.*

This sermon begins with a discussion, and a very formal one, on patriotism. The strictures which have been made on Christianity for not inculcating patriotism as a particular virtue, are considered at great length, and the usual answer is given. A picture is drawn of false patriotism, and cautions against it offered. And a persuasion follows to the exercise of true patriotism.

After making some observations on his preceding behaviour with regard to political questions, the author proceeds to turn the attention of his hearers "to the peculiar and alarming situation of public affairs;" and some very good observations are offered to encourage the people to be hearty in their opposition to the invasion of Frenchmen.

The language of the sermon is remarkable. It is in the very excess of Dr. Parr's stile. It is diffuse, and pompous, almost beyond parallel. There is scarcely a sentence which does not contain an antithesis, and some more than half a dozen. The sentiments contained in the sermon denote an enlightened and philosophical mind; but they are so ill-expressed that the perusal of it is a very disagreeable task. M.

Letters of Advice from a Mother to her Son. 8vo. *pp.* 452. *Cadell and Davies.*

These letters are the production of Mrs. Crespigny, of Champion-lodge, Camberwell, a lady of considerable rank and fashion; and upon that account they are not the less interesting. It is an object of some curiosity to know the opinions of persons of that description on subjects which, however interesting to the moral and religious world, are supposed to be held in indifference, if not entirely neglected by those who move in the circles of wealth and gaiety. That this is in general the case, we fear, requires no accumulation of evidence, but we are happy to find, by the work before us, that its author is a splendid exception; and we hope that her example in boldly avowing, and recommending truths of eternal importance in an age of sneerers and philosophists, will not be lost upon the upper ranks, and will, in particular, have its due effect on that sex which is honoured by so intelligent and amiable a representative.

Mrs. Crespigny was induced to address these letters to her son, in hopes that he would read short essays from her pen, "though he might reject far better in a more voluminous state." They remained by her many years, when a respectable friend accidentally saw some of them, and recommended their publication. Mrs. C. hesitated, until encouraged by other friends, and by the permission which his Grace of Canterbury gave to dedicate them to him.

The subjects considered in these Letters, are—Religion; Prayer; Public Worship; the Sacrament; Charity; Economy; Generosity and Gratitude; Friendship; Drinking; Gaming; Duelling; Female Connections; Seduction; Attachment; Swearing and Falsehood; the Connections of Society; Upon the Importance of what may appear Trifles; On Time; Behaviour to Inferiors; Dress; Conversation; Accomplishments; Drawing: Diversions, and Marriage.

These subjects do not occupy an equal share of this volume, the author dilating in proportion to their importance. The first ten letters accordingly, treat of Religion, and in them, besides the remarks of Mrs. C. which are always sensible if not profound, her correspondent is referred to works of superior authority and fame. Letter X. is entirely an extract from the Sermons of the Bishop of Chester, now Bishop of London. Letter XI. and XII. on Prayer and Public Worship are entitled to much praise, for soundness of principle, and the zeal with which those duties are recommended.—Mrs. C. seems to consider "the service of the Church of England as too long." Without examining this opinion, in which the author is not singular, we may venture to assert, that in the following page 134, she has suggested the true remedy. "In every mode of worship *perfect attention* must be absolutely necessary." If this perfect attention were given, we are morally certain, the service of our church would appear less prolix; but, (as it too frequently happens at present) we are not to be surprised that many should think a service tedious, to which they either pay no attention from a carelessness of habit, and from considering it as a mere form of words: or, from a slovenly and disrespectful mode of reading on the part of the officiating minister. Every composition will appear tedious to him who feels no interest in the subject. Letter XIII. recommends more frequent *communicating* than is usual with persons professing religion. Mrs. C's ideas on this subject correspond nearly with the Exhortations prefixed, in the Book of Common Prayer, to the Communion Service.

The remainder of these Letters concern Moral Duties, and contain those advices which the refined state of society in this country more particularly demands. We have already enumerated the subjects, but shall dismiss the greater part of them with general recommendation, which they amply deserve, as proofs of excellent sense, knowledge of the world, and maternal affection elevated beyond the common standard.

Chapters XIX. and XX. on Gaming, are illustrated by a well-told incident in real life, with all the circumstances of which, the relater appears to have been acquainted. This is corroborated by the usual arguments against gaming, a vice which, however, will never be *put down* in this country, until it shall be pronounced a disgrace and dishonour, by those who are the guides of public opinion. In the subsequent Letters on Duelling, the horrors of which are depicted with great truth and just feeling, Mrs. C. calls upon the interference of the legislature. This has often of late been repeated, but surely from mistaken views of the subject. The legislature, or rather the common law of the land includes duellists among murderers; the *true* causes however of this "atrocious practice" are stated afterwards by our author—"The sort of licence given to duelling—the encouragement it receives from too great lenity in courts of judicature—the cordial reception given to duellists in polite circles—and its being deemed almost necessary, as a point of honour,

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for a gentleman not to refuse a challenge." What wisdom or severity on the part of the legislature could remove these obstacles?

In Letters XXIV. XXV. and XXVI. on Seduction, we are presented with another narrative of the illustrative kind. Letters XXXI. and XXXII. upon the Importance of what may appear Trifles, evince great knowledge of the human heart, and of those minute observances which contribute much to influence our opinion of human conduct. But we must hasten to an *extract* from this work, which shall be made from Chap. XLI. on Marriage: this, the authoress, our readers will perceive, has treated with an eye to the situation of persons in easy, if not affluent circumstances:—

"Another ingredient necessary for happiness, speaking of the superior ranks in life, is an easy fortune suitable to the situation of the parties.—A man, accustomed to affluence ought to be in circumstances to support his wife in the same manner, and to look forward to the maintenance of children before he should determine to marry.—He should subdue his attachment sooner than draw the object of it into an embarrassed situation, and make a woman submit to the unnumbered difficulties that await a needy fortune.—He is criminal to draw a confiding, unthinking, but deluded, woman into a situation of so much misery—for, step by step, the most anxious and wretched feelings follow the heels of unaccustomed poverty—and *love* is driven away by debts and duns, wants and embarrassments; —all the gaiety, ease, and good-humour which was so captivating, are put to flight, leaving a miserable train of successors in their place. * * * * *

"If you marry for money only, and fancy that you will secure happiness that way, because you secure what will procure you many of the luxuries you may be fond of, though you are indifferent to the woman—remember that you must take *her* with it; this you may probably find such a weight as will dreadfully overbalance the other scale.

"To live with a woman whom you cannot love, supposing she has no particular bad quality, is of itself sufficient to blight every other blossom of happiness.—I am supposing you rational, and tolerably well-principled; for, if you were a fool or an unprincipled libertine, you would not have much chance of durable happiness any way, and would not be a character I should be at the useless trouble of endeavouring to persuade or correct.—But, supposing well of you in most points, I wish to guard you against marring your happiness, by uniting yourself with a woman whose mind does not accord with your's, or whose person and manners have no charms for you;—that delightful sensation of imparting your pleasures to one you love, and of sharing her's, would never be your's—an indifference to her and to her happiness would be your *least* unpleasant feeling—apathy would not long shield you from sensations much more poignant; for, as love would not throw a veil over her failings, disappointment and observation would hastily point them out, and would shortly produce disgust.—Your wife, too, would be quick-sighted to your indifference, and alive to your inattention—jarring and remonstrance would soon be followed by anger and jealousy on her part, and the miserable scenes would end, as such miserable scenes generally do, in a manner too obvious to require minute description.

"To enter into what ought to be supposed an indissoluble state during life, merely for the gratification of *any one* propensity, is little short of madness.—There must be a combination of desirable circumstances to give any rational expectation of happiness in a state, where we daily see many who have become miserable and wretched, in consequence of their total inattention to what ought to form the basis of their future hopes.

"I will now suppose you married with every apparent prospect of happiness—In *that* situation the attempts of my pen, if you compliment them with attention, may be in some degree useful to you, as I have marked with strict observation the rise and progress of happiness and unhappiness in the various families with whom I have intimately associated—and can from experience point out to you many thorns in the path which you by attention may avoid.—Circumstances of apparently the greatest magnitude I am not here speaking of, they will not creep upon you unawares, and will naturally be attended to; their immediate importance will secure them immediate attention.—But, as I have repeatedly said, half the misery of the world, even where there has been the fairest prospect of happiness, arises from an inattention to *trifles*.—I feel an attention to them as necessary, and recommend it as often, as Lord Chesterfield did an attention to the graces.

"Every man who means to captivate any particular woman, puts on a mode of behaviour which, like a full-dress suit, is only worn for a short time, unhappily, in general, only till he has obtained the object;—he then, too frequently, becomes a metamorphosed being—and he, 'who had no inclination but hers, whose will was resigned to her caprices, whose understanding submitted to her follies—who neither liked nor disliked, thought or spoke differently from her, who was constrained by a nod, awed by a frown, and transported by a smile—and whose pliant temper had charmed the believing girl, who expected the same from him throughout life'—how is he at once changed?—what magic power has wrought such wonders and produced such an effect?—She now finds that he can have a will of his own, but has not any to follow her's; and that, instead of treating her as a divinity, he will scarcely pay her the common civilities due to every woman.—Such a transition is as common as the effects of it are obvious.—Frequently too little allowance is made for trifling failings, mistakes and little petulancies. If these weaknesses of human nature are to be considered as faults of great magnitude, every little inadvertency made the most of, and every imperfection exaggerated, all felicity must be lost, and misery very soon take its place.

"In order to preserve the warm affections of your wife, be careful never to give her cause to distrust you; the more she loves you the more necessary is your attention upon that point—act as if you secretly believed her jealous, it will be the way to prevent her from really being so.—Never make any seemingly-heartfelt compliment to the beauty or charms of another woman, who is much in your society;—you would not do so before a woman whose preference you were soliciting—then why do so before your wife, whose *affection* it is so much your interest to preserve?—And, believe me, for I am well versed in the feelings of my sex, that a woman, truly and devotedly attached to you, has a secret wish to be *herself* the object of your greatest admiration;—and, though she would not willingly own, even to herself, what might be deemed a *degrading sentiment*, she would feel a hidden dissatisfaction at your warm admiration of another.

"As you value the continuance of her attachment, if any little dissention should arise, if mutual irritation and warmth should have occasioned any sort of disagreement between you, seek her out as soon as possible, and, by tender behaviour and sensible acknowledgements, recover her temper, and do away what might otherwise become the source of future petulance and controversy.

"It is as necessary to clear the mind from a bad impression, before it is suffered to blend itself with the feelings, as it is to carry off any extraneous humours of the body before they are absorbed into the habit.

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"If your wife should have any partialities, and they are not of a reprehensible nature, indulge them; she will, if she is amiable, repay you tenfold in grateful attentions, and give you more credit for your acquiescence than is absolutely your due;—but, if she has a favourite dog or bird, and you kick the one or torment the other, though she may for a time conceal her feelings, depend upon it they will be unfavourable towards you.

"When you can pay her a proper compliment, be sure to do so:—there is something implanted in our nature which produces sensations of great pleasure from the avowed approbation of those we love, and which likewise excites us to attempt the deserving an increase of it.—Though dress may not in general command your particular attention, yet never seem indifferent to that of your wife—observe her best looks, and *appear*, as I hope you would be, pleased with them.

"If she has talents, be ready to admire them; the sensible part of the world will not admire you the less for doing so.—It is a great mistake to bury the approbation we feel towards others in our own bosom; by doing it we lose their gratitude, and our title to candour and justice, besides the possibility of letting other people have credit for the seeing those qualifications to which we appear blind and insensible.—But the most essential caution upon this subject I have reserved for the last—and that is, when you marry, determine to be *domestic*. When you enter into that state, you must not prefer going to *clubs* to the staying at *home*—the living among *men*, and being generally separated from your family.—You have no right to marry a woman to deceive her—who loves you—who expects to pass the principal part of her time in your society—whose happiness perhaps depending upon domestic comforts, instead of experiencing them, she meets with the bitter mortification of being neglected. A man who pursues such a line of conduct has no right to blame his wife, if, when left to herself, and disappointed in her hopes of *domestic society*, she acts, in her turn, in such a manner as does not meet with his approbation."

This extract may be sufficient to shew the general tenour of Mrs. C's reasoning and advice; and if our readers are as much averse to new theories, and new philosophies on the subject of education as we are, they will not be less pleased with the whole of these affectionate and instructive Letters. R.

Academic Correspondence, 1803; *containing Extracts, (No. 2.) from a Correspondence with the Academies of Vienna and St. Petersburg, on the present Cultivation of the Arts of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture; a Summary Report of the Transactions of the Royal Academy of London, from the close of the Exhibition*, 1802, *to the same Period*, 1803. *And a Description of Public Monuments voted by the Parliament of Great Britain, to the Memory of distinguished Naval and Military Officers since the Year* 1798. *Published by order of the Academy. By* Prince Hoare, *Member of the Academies of Florence and Cortona, and Secretary for Foreign Correspondence to the Royal Academy of London.* 4*to.* 28 *pp. Robson, &c.*

This is the second Fasciculus which the zealous Secretary of our Academy has published, and the utility of his labours is best described in the motto he has prefixed:

"Communes utilitates in medium afferre; tum artibus, tum operâ, tum facultatibus devincire hominum inter homines Societatem." CICERO DE OFF.

Of the beneficial influence of this work, as tending to raise the Royal Academy in the estimation of our countrymen, and of Europe, and to call forth a more general and liberal patronage of the plastic arts, there cannot possibly be a doubt. This academy, like all other Bodies Corporate, is subject to feuds and dissentions, which have tended to lower the high character it ought to hold, and the unanimity it ought to display. Considerable therefore as are the advantages which it will eventually derive from a work ably and regularly edited, which shall occasionally note the state and cultivation of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture; yet these advantages necessarily depend on the manner in which such a work is executed, and also on the price by which it can be obtained. In both these respects, we think, Mr. Hoare has been to blame. We could wish a national work like this to take a more extensive title than Correspondence; and though we do not presume to dictate to the worthy Secretary, we beg leave to submit to his better judgment, whether something like the following title would not tend more to promote the great objects he has in view.—*Academic Transactions: presenting an Occasional View of the Present State and Cultivation of the Arts of Painting, Sculpture, and Architecture in Europe.*

For a work like the present, which is professedly published by the desire of the first Academy in Europe, should present something more to the attention of its readers, than a *summary* account of the principal occurrences during the preceding year; than a brief and hasty letter from M. de *Labzin*, and M. Füger; and a bare account of the monuments which have been voted to the memory of our brave countrymen, who have fallen in battle. It should first give a separate view of the progress of each of the Arts, of which it professes to treat: marking the different artists who have excelled in each, and subjoining an account of their performances—it should also record the names of young artists, as their works appear at our public exhibition, and point out their respective merits; and above all regularly subjoin a biographical eulogy, of such academicians as have died during the year.—The usual account that appears in our public prints of the pictures in each exhibition, is paltry, invidious, and grossly deficient in point of taste and science. Our architects have but little opportunity to exhibit to any advantage the progressive improvement of their art: it therefore peculiarly behoves the Secretary to record their labours, and to endeavour to appreciate them as their respective merit may require.

Such are a few of the hints which we earnestly recommend to the future attention of Mr. Hoare. He deserves the thanks and praise of his countrymen for what he has done, but he will merit their everlasting gratitude if he will advance a step further, and vindicate the glorious cause he has in view.—We now proceed to a more particular notice of the contents of his work.

And first respecting the engraving which is prefixed. Surely, when the zeal of a private individual had transported from Eleusis one of the noblest fragments of ancient Sculpture, the Royal Academy of England might have afforded an engraving worthy of

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the subject, and of the country. Besides, no account is given of the manner in which it was procured; and the principal information that the future historian will gain respecting it, from a work professedly published by desire of the academy, is contained in Mr. Füger's letter—"that mention was made of an antique statue (or Busto) of Ceres, *said* to have been dug up in Greece, and lately sent to England by order of Mr. Clarke an Englishman."

We also wish that Mr. Hoare had printed, if not all, at least a greater portion of Count de *Stroganoff's* Catalogue Raisonnée of his own collection of pictures, since from the notice of the Flemish school, it would prove of general service. "L'Ecole Flamande, dont Rubens est le plus grand maitre, joint a l'eclat de la couleur, et a la magie du clair-obscur un dessein savant, quoiqu'il ne soit pas fondé sur le choix des plus belles formes; une composition qui a de la grandeur, des expressions fortes et naturelles; enfin une sorte de beauté nationale, qui est capable et même digne de plaire."

Mr. Hoare informs us that the following artists are employed on the remaining public Monuments that have been voted to British valour: Mr. *Bankes*, on that which is intended for captain G. R. Westcott, of the Royal Navy; Mr. Flaxman on one for Captain Montague, of the Royal Navy, and on another for Earl Howe; Mr. Rossi is employed on the one that was voted to the memory of Captains Moss and Riou; Mr. Bacon, jun. on another joint monument voted to the Captains Harvey and Hunt; and on the one destined for General Dundas. Mr. Westmacott is employed on General Abercrombie's monument.

Mr. Flaxman in his letter to the Secretary, makes the following observations on the celebrated bust of Ceres.—"Concerning the bust of Ceres, of which you enquire, I have seen it, and made drawings of it. When entire, it was a statue made of two blocks of marble: including the basket she supported on her head, the whole must have measured sixteen feet in height. The original is quite a ruin; the face is gone. It is six feet ten inches high from the bottom of the girdle or zone to the top of the basket. I have examined the ancient authors, but have found nothing of the statue. Pliny says nothing of it; Vitruvius says nothing of it; nor Pausanias. Strabo says the temple was erected by Ictinus under Pericles. *It is certainly a work of the time of Phidias*, of an elevated beauty, and powerful execution; but I think Phidias could not have done all the works attributed to him, unless he had possessed as many hands as Briareus."—True, Mr. Flaxman, but a single pair of hands would have been sufficient at least to model such a statue as this: and as Mr. Clarke has produced such ample testimonies from ancient authors relative to this statue, and as Phidias was employed by Pericles to execute a statue of Ceres, which he presented to the city of Eleusis; if you declare, that it certainly was a work of the time of Phidias, and moreover is of an elevated beauty, and powerful execution, we think the real fact is decided, without any assistance of Briareus.

S. Q.

Letters of a Mameluke: or, A Moral and Critical Picture of the Manners of Paris—with Notes by the Translator. From the French of Joseph Lavallée, *of the Philotechnic Society, &c. &c. &c. 2 vols. 12mo. pp. 576. Murray.*

Our readers probably do not require to be told that this work is written on the plan of the Turkish Spy, the Citizen of the World, &c. in which the manners of the civilized part of mankind are canvassed in the mind of a Turk, Chinese, Egyptian, or some person whose habits and prejudices are diametrically opposite to those he has to encounter. The plan being once laid down, it is not very difficult for a writer of some genius to follow it, and it will always be a pleasing and popular mode of insinuating satire, and censuring practices either of the trifling, or more serious sort. In every work of this kind, however, it is necessary that the *costume* of the SPEAKER should be carefully preserved, and that the AUTHOR should possess such a degree of impartiality, as to conceal his own *particular* opinions, and deliver only those which may be supposed natural to the personage whom he has borrowed to utter them. In these respects, M. Lavallee deserves very considerable praise. We think, indeed, that he has made his Mameluke too intimately acquainted with the ancient history of France, and has involved him in a discussion somewhat too visionary, although ingenious, on the causes of the revolution. On the score of impartiality, however, he is a very singular exception to the mass of his countrymen, and, if in addition to the recent writings of certain English tourists, our readers will bestow an attentive perusal on this work, they may be able to form a very just, and perhaps compleat idea of French character. We cannot say, indeed, that it will be a pleasing one; we never thought it so; but of whatever kind, it is necessary to be known and studied.

As this is not a work of great extent, we shall select only a single passage, as a specimen of the author's lively manner. It occurs in Letter XIII. Vol. 1. where the Mameluke censures the insensibility of the French to scenes of death, as is particularly obvious in their funerals:

"I was once present, Giafar, at one of these pompous funerals. On coming out of the temple, the master of the ceremonies placed me in one of the carriages in the procession. I shall never forget the conversation of my two companions—'Ah! good morning, Dermance: you are here.'—'I bowed to you; I was at a distance; you did not perceive me.'—'Indeed! you delight me. I was mortally afraid of seeing'—'What! your sight is'—'Detestable. Do people see? Sir, will you be so good as to draw up that glass? It is extremely cold! Upon my word, that church is—two long hours? Winter and wearisomeness, 'tis a great deal too much for a funeral. He's a Mameluke, I believe.'—'I fancy he is.'—'You are a Mameluke, Sir?'—'Yes, Sir.'—He speaks French! That's delightful.'—'Not delightful; but natural enough, as you would speak the Turkish language if you had learned it.'—'Turkish, that's not possible! Apropos, as a Turk, you ride on horseback?'—'Sometimes.'—'Ah! yes, I understand; with your knees in an acute angle; your heels—not pretty. The English manner of riding is much better. I like that manner! The English are the people for sitting a horse!'—'And for tea!'—'That reminds me, that you did not come to the route.'—'Where, then?'—'Last night at Madame de Ge-

mess's.'—'Oh! don't mention it; I abominate large parties; my lungs, my nerves.'—'Inquiries were made for you.'—'By whom?'—'By some one, by every one. A charming party! such luxury! such rooms! a thousand wax candles! a hundred women!'—'Handsome ones?'—'Yes, handsome—as they are. Men of the first fashion, Russians, admirable Russians! such music! such a supper! such a ball! And all in such a style! so divine! so elegant!'—'But was she not related to Melfort?'—(This was the name of the deceased.)—'A very near relation; he was her father's brother.'—'She did not know then'—'Oh, yes! she knew it last night, but she will pretend not to have heard of it till this morning. Could she foresee his death? These hundred persons invited! Think of that.'—'Ah! indeed no death could happen more unseasonably: I had promised little Linange to go this morning and try his horse, and here'—'Faith, in your place.'—'Oh! no: Melfort leaves a considerable sum of money to my father; and propriety'—Did you take notice of the carriage that just passed us?'—'Which?'—'It is little Aurelia.'—'Indeed!'—'Your family gets a considerable sum by the death of Melfort; and she loses by it two hundred Louis a month.'—'It is impolitic to meet his funeral.'—'By no means; for my part, I like that; there's some spirit in it: why not? It is, perhaps, a piece of good fortune for her to lose that allowance.'—'I thought so; Melfort was not of a gay turn.'—'A funeral procession affords not the fittest opportunity for relating anecdotes; but for that, I would tell you such things!'—'Yes; but grief.'—'Do you intend to see the end of this?'—'Attend the procession to without the gates? Are you dreaming? Two hours in the open air! A funeral sermon! A man must be made of iron to endure all this. No: I have sent back my carriage; I shall alight at the *Chaussée d' Antin*. Melfort has the complaisance to favour me with a conveyance; I am on my way.'—O Giafar! my countenance is still pale with fright!!! Scarcely had he pronounced these words, before I saw him totter; his head dropped on the shoulder of his companion; the colour forsook his cheeks; and his eyes closed. 'Sir,' exclaimed I, 'he is ill!' I pulled the check-string; the coachman stopped his horses; the servants assisted us in getting him out of the carriage. We carried him into a neighbouring house; a surgeon was sent for. The moment he arrived, 'It is too late,' said he, 'he has broken a vessel of his lungs: blood has choaked him; he is dead'—*I am on my way!* had he said. O my friend! those words will never be effaced from my memory.

"When they follow one of their friends or relations to this last asylum, they are all, in this manner, on their way; and this, however, with more or less variation, is their general manner of following him! The next day I was desirous to see what impression such an accident had made on the mind of his companion. I found him at his funeral: he recognized me. 'Ah! I am very glad to see you again,' said he to me. 'Who would have expected such a thing! What a scene! It was frightful.'—'Terrible! and above all, what a lesson!'—'His relations are in despair: they wish to see you, and thank you for your attention'—'What attention? I merely discharged the duty of humanity. I wish I could, in the same manner, have restored that unfortunate youth to life!'—'To life! say you, he deserved to live; a graceful person, a handsome face; he was rich too, played on the harp like an angel, and so fond of dancing! He danced better than I can. I shall long regret him; on my honour, I regret him. And as for understanding! *I am on my way*, said he. Confess that it was a charming pun: I would give a hundred Louis that it had been uttered by another person: I should laugh at it all day.'

"Yet this hare-brained youth, whom thou seest, as it were, ready to joke about the last moments of the man he loved, and whom thou dost already accuse of barbarous and cold indifference; well! this youth, wouldst thou believe it? he has the best heart, the most noble soul, the most tender feelings. This Dermance, his friend, had a child at nurse, the dear but unfortunate offspring of love, whom its father, suddenly taken off, left unprovided. Depienne, the hare-brained youth, who sees nothing but a pun in the last words of his dying friend, flies to this child, adopts it, and settles a handsome annuity on the mother! This is little. Dermance had a sister by a former marriage of his father, whom he tenderly loved; she was poor, and he had a thousand times declared that he would share his fortune with her. He dies without being able to realize his promise; and the most profound distress was on the point of overwhelming this beautiful and virtuous young woman. Admire the conduct of Depienne. Yesterday he married her, and divided with her his fortune, which is likewise immense! And when people mention to him this behaviour, no less noble than generous, the flighty and charming youth answers, 'Greek, like my furniture! 'Tis the last will and testament of Eudamidus. What a fine subject for the drawing-room!' And he laughs. What a people then are the French, in whom the most gloomy ideas awaken nothing but a smile, and whose frivolous wit parodies the sublimest virtue, even when they exercise it with so much splendour! Such, however, is the portrait of a Frenchman."

The notes of the Translator of this work are curious and valuable. They appear to have been added by one whose residence in France gave him opportunities to know much of its internal history. The following on the conduct of the French players may be considered as particularly striking, from the information which it conveys, and the reflections to which it may lead:—

"The prejudice against the comedians in France during the Monarchy, was certainly illiberal, if not unjust; but, in the annals of the cruel and barbarous of all revolutions, are found the names of more actors who have committed or commanded atrocious deeds, than can be hardly credible, were it not notorious. Collot d'Herbois, as a member of the Convention, caused several thousand Lyonese people to be guillotined or shot, because, when an actor at Lyons, he had been hissed upon the stage. Ferni, another actor, was one of the judges of the Revolutionary Tribunals at Lyons and Orange, which condemned so many thousand innocent persons to death. Fusil, another actor and revolutionary judge; Dugazon, an actor, and colonel in the Revolutionary Army, which arrested, plundered and murdered every where in France during the reign of Robespierre; Monvel, an actor and a man of letters, was the high priest of the Goddess of Reason, and as such, ascended the pulpit and preached in the church of St. Roch at Paris. Hundreds of others have figured in the revolutionary committees, and in the massacres of prisoners. The conduct of these persons certainly justified former governments to suspect the morality, and to restrain the influence in society of this class of men in France." R.

List of New Publications from Jan. 1, to 16, 1804.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, TRAVELS, &c.

Travels from Hamburgh, through Westphalia, Holland and the Netherlands, to Paris. By Thomas Holcroft. 2 vols. 4to. 5*l.* 5*s.* Fine paper, 8*l.* 8*s.* (*)

The Costume of the Hindoos represented in 250 large

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coloured etchings, descriptive of their Manners, Customs, Dress, and religious Ceremonies. By Balt. Solvyns, of Calcutta. 31*l.* 10*s.*

The History of Freemasonry, drawn from authentic Sources of Information, with an Account of the Grand Lodge in Scotland from its Institution in 1736 to the present Time, compiled from the Records, and an Appendix of Original Letters. (*) 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

A History of the Commencement, Progress, and Termination of the late War between Great Britain and France, which continued from the first Day of February 1793, to the first of October 1801. By John Young, D. D. (*) 2 vols. 8vo. 14*s.*

Biographical Dictionary of celebrated Women of every Age and Country. By Matilda Betham. 12mo. 7*s.*

This Dictionary contains the names of several remarkable women who have been noticed in history ancient and modern, arranged in alphabetical order, with biographical sketches of the Lives of the most celebrated. It is crowded with a variety of names of women, the history of whose lives, even in the opinion of the authoress, did not deserve two lines. The consequence is, that the sketches of those deserving of mention are so cursory as to preclude the development of character, and of those private motives that influenced the conduct, which it is the chief and most valuable province of biography to hold out, either for example or instruction. It is evident, therefore, that the utility of the work would be much increased by throwing out the more insignificant characters, and giving a stronger and more accurate delineation of the rest, and as far as possible pointing out the external means that contributed in any degree to the formation of these characters. Such a work would be attended with great advantage to mankind in general, and to females in particular. But as to the book under consideration, the most that can be learned from it is, that such persons *have been*, with a few outlines of the lives of some individuals, which are however so meagre, that no useful instruction can be expected from them. The style is in general easy, but sometimes bordering on slovenliness. If it should be urged as an objection to the above observations that in compilations of this sort, a very general and barren outline is all that can be with reason looked for, we would reply first that much of the useless might be left out, and of the useful inserted; and secondly, that if only such an outline was intended to be given, the work ought to be called a "Dictionary of celebrated women" without the addition of "Biographical," a word that must always lead the public to expect more than the compiler ever intended to perform.

The Life of Raffaello, with twelve Heads, from his Fresco Works in the Vatican, engraved of the same Size as in the Original Pictures, accompanied with a Portrait, an ornamental Title-page, and Outlines of each Composition from whence the Heads were taken, as Keys of Reference. By R. Duppa. folio. 4*l.* 4*s.*

Sketches of the Lives and Characters of eminent English Civilians. By a Member of that Society. 8vo. 4*s.*

This work purports to give sketches of the lives and characters of the most eminent Civilians, and comprises the extensive period from the beginning of the reign of Henry the Eighth, to the close of the year 1803. It is impossible not to be struck with the little honour which it does to the college of Civilians, for in a profession which might be expected to furnish ample materials for the most useful biography, all is to the last degree meagre and barren. That many of the men whose names are here recorded, were eminent in their own particular department we mean not to deny, but it is surprising, with all the advantages which they possessed, that none could go beyond the beaten track and distinguish themselves and the society to which they belonged by scientific or literary knowledge. With regard to the lives and characters of learned Civilians, as far as appears from the present publication, it may be justly said,

Go search *them* there, where to be born and die,
Of rich and poor makes all the history.

It is impossible for us to point out any thing in this catalogue, that can be really valuable to the general reader or the Civilian, except the Introduction, which gives a dry and brief account of the origin and progress of the Society.

A Summary of Ancient History from the earliest Ages to the Dissolution of the Roman Empire, with a Geographical Index. 12mo.

This small volume contains a summary of the history of Greece, from the earliest ages to its conquest by the Romans, and of that of Rome from its foundation to the destruction of the Western Empire. These are preceded by a short account of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, Persians, Medes, and Chaldeans, with observations upon the manners and literature of each. The works of the most eminent men of letters in Greece and Rome are also mentioned, and the most prominent points in the doctrines of each stated. The book is intended for the use of schools, and considering its size, contains a great deal of important matter. It is evident, however, that the summary here given must be extremely vague. Though another volume of the same size had been assigned to this part of the history, it could not be too large even for the use of schools, and the general view might in this case have been more accurate though still far from complete. It must be admitted, however, that several of the most remarkable facts in the histories of Greece and Rome are mentioned, and a sort of connection preserved through the whole, which could scarcely have been expected in one 12mo. volume purporting to be a summary of Ancient History. The style is perspicuous and free from affectation, and the book may no doubt be of considerable benefit to those who are prevented from examining a more complete history upon the same subject. We understand from the preface that it is in contemplation to give another volume, as a continuation of this, which will contain a summary of modern history.

POLITICS.

A View of the Relative Situation of Mr. Pitt, and Mr. Addington, previous to, and on the Night of Mr. Patten's Motion. By a Member of Parliament. (*). 3*s.*

Rassurez vous, or the Improbability of an Invasion, and the Impossibility of its Success demonstrated. 1*s.* 6*d.*

A Letter to the Earl of Wycombe, from Mr. Miles. 3*s.*

The Principles of Taxation, or Contribution, according to Means—with a Plan by which the present ruinous System of Taxation, the Custom-House and Excise-Office may be abolished, and the National Debt gradually and easily paid off. By William Frend, Esq. (*) 1*s.* 6*d.*

Hints to the People of the United Kingdom in general, and of North Britain in particular, on the present important Crisis, and some interesting collateral Subjects. By W. Dickson, L. L. D. 1*s.*

The scope of this pamphlet is to call the attention of

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Britons to the superiority of their own constitution to every other. This superiority is proved by a comparison of our own and the constitutions of other nations: especially the ephemeral constitutions of France, and also by the rapid improvement of British agriculture, trade, and manufactures. The author then turns our attention to the state of our morality and religion, inveighs against luxury and dissipation, especially the abuse of tea, spirits, and Italian music which last he thinks ought never to be heard in a regiment. To shew the abhorrence in which tea-drinking was formerly held, he quotes an old couplet which classes tea-drinkers with thieves and w——es.

"Tea-drinker, snuff-taker,
Wh—re, thief, and mantua-maker."

This pamphlet is written with great spirit, and the author appears to be animated by loyalty and genuine patriotism. It contains many valuable observations, much useful information, and is certainly well worth the attention of the public at this momentous crisis.

Observations on the Temper and Spirit of the Irish Nation, at the present Crisis. By John Pratt Winter, Esq. 1*s*.

This pamphlet ought to have been entitled "Observations on the temper best suited to the Irish nation at the present crisis" for the great object of the author from the general strain of his reasoning appears to be to inculcate such a temper. He seems to harbour a doubt whether the Irish in general are so much attached to Great Britain as every true friend to both countries would wish, and recent events afford unfortunately but too strong grounds for that doubt. But this part of the subject is only slightly glanced at, perhaps from a well founded apprehension of irritating instead of calming the animosities of parties. The great point which he labours with considerable ability and strength of reasoning, is to shew the Irish that their own interest and happiness and the dangers of the times loudly call for a sacrifice of party prejudices and quarrels, and a cordial union among themselves in co-operating with Great Britain, for promoting the grand cause in which we are at present engaged. On this point we have only to express our ardent wishes that he may not have laboured in vain. The author makes several just and pointed remarks on the views of France, the despotic sway she exercises over the conquered countries, and the nature of her own government; and then requests the Irish people to reflect what they could gain by her friendship. Most of these observations are sufficiently common, but the style is vigorous throughout, and the conclusion is even eloquent. "If we confine our desires," says the author, "to the attainment of what is practicable and safe, abandoning the pursuit of what is imaginary and deceitful, we will [shall] adhere to the side of Britain. When we have descended from the heights of speculation, and opened our eyes to what actually passes in the scene before us; when we have surveyed all other states and the various forms and conditions of society, we shall find her unequalled in the wisdom of her laws and institutions; and we shall rest in this, as the conclusion from all we have observed, that we can hope no greater happiness than to share her constitution, nor a fate more glorious than to share her fortunes."

Letters on the Importance of the present War. By Allan Macleod. Letter 1st. The Question stated. 8vo. 1*s*.

THEOLOGY.

The English Diatessaron, or the History of our Lord Jesus Christ, compiled from the four Evangelists. By the Rev. R. Warner. 8vo.

Struck with the obvious utility of the Greek Diatessaron of the Rev. Doctor White of Oxford, it occurred to the author that the plan might be rendered more extensively profitable by giving to the world a work of the same nature in English. The diatessaron, as the name implies, is a compilation from the four evangelists, according to the received English version, of a regular and connected history of our Saviour, divided into seven periods. The first period comprehends the Evangelical History prior to the public ministry of Christ; the second, the events from the Baptism of Christ to the commencement of the succeeding passover; the third, the events of 12 months from the commencement of that passover; the fourth, the events of 12 months from the commencement of the second passover; the fifth, the events of 12 months from the commencement of the third passover; the sixth, the events of three days, from the day on which the fourth passover was observed to the end of the day preceding the resurrection; the seventh comprises the events of forty days, from the day of the Resurrection to the Ascension. No plan could be conceived better calculated for general utility than the present, nor is the execution inferior to the design. We have seldom perused any work with more pleasure and instruction. The connected form in which the history of our Saviour appears here, gives it additional interest, and a peculiar tendency to make deep and permanent impression. The notes will be useful to readers of every description. The author has certainly done essential service to the cause of religion and virtue by this publication, and the consciousness of "having turned many to righteousness" will not be the least grateful part of his reward. A Mr. Thirlwall has lately published a Diatessaron, but upon a plan somewhat different from that before us.

The Tears of Peter—A Sermon from the original French of the late Peter du Bosc—to which is affixed an Account of the Author. 1*s*. 6*d*.

This Sermon we are informed is intended as a specimen of the manner of the author and the merits of the translation, and if it should meet with a favourable reception, Du Bosc's Sermons on select subjects are to be given to the public in an English dress. Du Bosc was held in high estimation for his eloquence, and considering that the present specimen must have been composed about a century and a half ago, the author is certainly entitled to a considerable degree of praise; but we are very far from agreeing in opinion with those who consider him as a *perfect orator*, if he is to be judged from the Sermon before us. We find a great deal of that loose and desultory manner, that spinning out of minute particulars which characterize many of our old Sermons, and which by fatiguing the attention, endanger all the good they can be expected to produce. We have looked in vain for the eloquent flow of *Massilon*, the close and perspicuous order of *Claude*, or the thunder and commanding energy of *Saurin*. Of the fidelity of the translation we can say nothing, as we have not seen the original, but it is certainly not distinguished either for perspicuity or elegance. But though these Sermons, judging by the present specimen, cannot stand a comparison with those of the great men above mentioned, whose words and sentiments at once convinced the understanding and spoke to the heart, we would not be understood to say, that they are devoid of merit. On the contrary, they may be read with a great deal of advantage, and we heartily wish success to the translator's undertaking. One of the most brilliant things in the whole is that observation for which *Du Bosc* was accused and imprisoned. Speaking of auricular confession, he was charged with having said, *that the ears of the priests were sinks and canals to receive the filth of the whole city.*

A Sermon preached on the Fast Day, Oct. 19, 1803. By the Rev. John Clarke, LLB. 1*s*. 6*d*.

This Sermon has the merit of being extremely appro-

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priate to the occasion for which it was written, nor does it in any instance lose sight of the great object in view. The nature of the threatened calamity which occasioned the appointment of the national fast, is explained, as well as the objects we have to defend, and the grounds we have to confide that heaven will bless our virtuous efforts. The style and arrangement discover no defects which call for reprehension.

Two Sermons preached before the Corps of Somerset-Place Volunteers: one on the Fast Day, and the other on the Presentation of their Colours by Lady Hammond. By James Davidson, D. D. 2s. 6d.

These Sermons contain many just observations and inculcate sentiments proper to be entertained at the present crisis. This however is the full extent of their merits, as they possess nothing peculiarly striking. A sketch of the prevailing vices of the times is given, and the doctrine enforced that it is only by repentance and reformation, and a confidence in the God of battles, we can entertain rational and well-founded hopes of surmounting our difficulties, and of having our efforts crowned with glory and success. The end proposed in these discourses must meet with general approbation, but we do not think that the style and composition are of a nature likely to rouse the sinner from his apathy or produce any thing like a powerful and permanent effect.

POETRY.

St. Rambert—or the French Royalist. A Poem—in five Cantos. 2s.

DRAMA.

Twenty-One, an Operatic After-piece, altered from the French of Duval. By James Wild.

NOVELS.

The Barons of Felsheim—a Romance, translated from the French of Pegault Lebrun. (*) 3 vols. 12mo. 12s.

The Watch Tower—an historic Romance. By T. I. Horsley Curties. (*) 5 vols. 12mo. 15s.

Light and Shade—a Novel. 4 vols. (*) 14s.

MISCELLANIES.

Correspondence between Mr. Adams and Mr. Bowles. relative to the late Duke of Bedford. 4to. *gratis.*

A Publication without a title has appeared respecting the late Duke of Bedford. In a pamphlet of Mr. Bowles, the eulogists of that nobleman had been blamed, as he was a man without religion. In proof of this allegation it was stated, that he never attended divine service, and prevented others from doing so by paying his workmen, and at times setting them to work on the Sunday. The present Duke feeling hurt at this charge against his brother, employed Mr. Adam, the counsellor, to converse with Mr. Bowles on the subject. In consequence of this conversation, an investigation was made by Mr. Adam into the truth of the facts alledged by Mr. Bowles. The correspondence between these two gentlemen are respecting this investigation, and an account of the investigation itself, is here laid before the public. The two facts last alledged, of paying the workmen, or setting them to work on a Sunday, appear to us to be completely disproved. The other fact, that his Grace never attended divine service is admitted; and is only attempted, in our opinion a little aukwardly, to be palliated by saying that the church was not in a condition for the Duke to attend divine service in it, but that it had been repaising at his Grace's expence, and in such a manner as indicated that he *meant* to attend. The publication is in every respect to the honour of the present duke, as it shews his anxiety for his brother's reputation, and the importance which *he* attaches to a religious character.

A Concise Vindication of the Conduct of the Five suspended Members of the Council of the Royal Academy. 1s.

A Short Account of certain Notable Discoveries in History, Science, and Philology, contained in a recent Work, entitled "Elements of General Knowledge," &c. By Phileleutheros Orielensis.—Part the First. 1s.

An East-India Register and Directory for 1804. Corrected to January 1, and compiled from the Official Returns. By John Mathison, and Alexander Way Mason. 5s.

Polyanthea, or a Collection of interesting Fragments in Prose and Verse, consisting of Original Anecdotes, Biographical Sketches, Dialogues, Letters, Characters, &c. 2 vols. 8vo. 16s.

Many of these are rare and highly entertaining. In every point of view the collection is superior to most publications of the same nature. With the strictest care to exclude every thing that could injure the cause of religion and good morals, it contains a great deal to amuse and something to instruct. We think it therefore entitled to a considerable share of public approbation.

Humourist's Miscellany containing select Articles of Poetry, on Mirth, Humour, &c. to which is prefixed the celebrated Lecture on Heads. By the late G. A. Stevens, Esq. 12mo. 5s.

This little volume is composed of some of our most common jests and puns turned into rhyme, which is dignified with the name of poetry, and of several pieces in verse selected from the different authors. The Lecture on Heads which is here the only piece of prose, is by far more valuable than all the rest of the book put together; whilst many of the poetical articles are dull and pointless; some, however, are sufficiently humorous. One thing pleads powerfully in favour of the book, which is, that it contains nothing likely to enervate the mind, or injure the morals of the reader; and a work that affords some entertainment without having a dangerous tendency, may be considered as entitled to some degree of approbation.

Stories for Children, intended to be read or recited to them in the early Periods of Infancy. By Annabella Plumptre. 12mo. 2s.

These stories are simple and interesting, and well calculated to afford amusement to children of tender years, for whom they are designed, without vitiating their minds by having recourse to the improbable and extravagant. Some points of useful knowledge and morality are inculcated in each, in a style beautifully simple without being silly. The authoress we think has appreciated the feelings of infancy with great ingenuity and justness. The preface contains many excellent remarks well worth the attention of those who have the care of children of that early age for which the Stories are intended.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Classical Commentators.

Mr. Editor,

Among the various walks of Literature which have been studiously traced, through a deficiency in original science, it has often appeared surprising to me, that classical authors *themselves* are the only aim of

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our analytical pursuits, while their commentators and interpreters, paraphrasts and collectors, have experienced the ingratitude of silence from those whom they have particularly benefited. We admire the solid structure of a Grecian temple, the conformity, the simplicity of its parts: but we by no means neglect the exterior ornament of the overshadowing architrave, and tapering column. Our taste in reading differs; we dismiss the poem, the notes, the explanation; and, I fear, too often retire from the rich feast with a palled appetite instead of a salutary relish.

The dulness of the subject has been suggested to me as the cause of its omission. I undertake to prove that each era of literature, since its revival, has furnished not only scandal to the inquisitive, but instruction to the polite. It is a subject on which I might enlarge, I think with amusement to my readers, from the Platonic and Aristotelian contests in the time of Lorenzo, through the glorious elucidations of Bentley, to the acrimonious, yet classical suggestions of Wakefield.

My time will not permit me at present to engage in a task which would require volumes to illustrate. I shall cursorily pass over the centuries preceding the eighteenth, and then content myself with a review of the names and opinions of the most celebrated annotators of a latter day, who have indeed in great measure superseded the no less laudable labours of their predecessors.

We have every reason to suppose that before the fourth century, the most illustrious productions of the classics had been commented on by interpreters comparatively cotemporary with the originals.—But the scarcity of copies, which the manual labour of scribes slowly edited, was successively the cause of the mutilation, epitomizing, and final loss of the original authors.—The copious extracts of succeeding lexicographers, by superseding the necessity of the *whole* materials, became another strong cause conducive to the ruin of historical and theatrical works. In this absorption (if I may so term it) of original merit, we are rather to be surprised that we still boast the names of a Timæus, Servius, Donatus, and Macrobius, than that so many other deserving commentators have been finally swallowed up in the abyss of antiquity.

Dark and gloomy were the ages between the fourth and the eleventh centuries: from the latter I think we may trace the spark, which has since blazed with so pure an irradiation over all Europe. The astonished world began to detect the frauds of the Monks, among whom alone the least ray of learning had remained. Taste and criticism began to distinguish Dio Cassius from Xiphilin—the toga from the cowl. They lamented the adoption of Trogus Pompeius by Justin—the jejune epitome of Cornelius Nepos—the manifest fraud of Dictys and Dares, while they were led to believe, to revere, to sanction the treasures of Justinian discovered at Amalfi.

The invention of printing multiplied the works of the ancients, which had escaped from obscurity: enlarged the number of their readers: facilitated the conjectures of their commentators—and as we find that the first literati were the booksellers: and that they were the primary annotators of their own publications—when we remember that the printing any author with immoveable types was a work of long and serious labour, which involved the character no less than the fortune of the editor—we shall find much more reason to praise the diligence of the founders, than of the latter architects of criticism—solidity was the characteristic of the former; and a degree of pertness of the latter. Aldus, Gaza, and the Steevens's were scholars as well as traders. Yet the Greek of Aldus, and the Latin of Steevens are mutilated and ill-edited. The search for ancient copies was prosecuted by the munificence of princes, the subscriptions of monasteries, the pains of individuals; and perhaps Poggio Bracciolini deserves for his individual exertions an equal share of praise with the indefatigable though public researches of a Lorenzo.

A fanciful and curious mode of latinising the names of commentators existed about two centuries back, for a considerable time, with which some of our readers may be unacquainted. Casaubon, (an elegant scholar, whose Persius is a chef-d'œuvre of solid criticism) was merely the adscititious name of a Frenchman. Muller assumed the name of Regiomontanus from the district of his birth. De Thou accepted the name of Thuanus.—Faber and Anna Fabri were respectively Le Fevre and Madame Dacier.—I am unable to discover the real name of Ortelius—but the public will perhaps not be very inquisitive about a commentator, who would appear from the following passage to be of Irish extraction: (vid. not. ad Sull. frag. ed Gron. p. 410.) "Hos tantum ter *in vitâ* lavari; cum nascuntur; in nuptiis; et in *funere*."

The Wechelian, the Basle types, are the uninviting emblems of a house stored with no entertainment.—But from the signs of Froben's Serpent, of Aldus' Anchor, of Steevens's tree, of Elzevir's owl, and the vignettes of the Hackii, we may expect a banquet, in which perhaps the viands may be too profuse, but at the same time may allow an ample choice.

After saying a few words on the subject of compilations of notes; I will immediately descend to the description of the disingenuity of Brunck, the flippancy of Toup, and the elaborate and wonderful acumen of Porson.

In reviewing these compilations, I find only three or four which deserve notice—The Variorums—The Delphins—The Benedictines—and perhaps the Biponts, especially the Greek editions of Classics hitherto printed by their Society, and which still continue to be printed at Strasbourg, since the violent removal by the French of the Scavans and their press from Deux-Ponts. I have another reason for wishing to be explicit on the Bipont Classics to avoid such mistakes as the following one of a bookbinder, who lettered my Thucydides "*by Ponti*," and of a person of no very great literary abilities, who asked me whether Bipont *the Editor*, was not a *banished man* after the irruption of the French.

The notæ Variorum, as their name implies, contain various matter and manner—and, having been collected and printed at different times and places, are frequently combinations of genius and elucidation, frequently are trite and unsatisfactory. The prior

editions, under the direction of Gronovius, Grævius, and Lipsius, chiefly settle the text by the introduction of manuscript readings into it, or conjectural emendations in the notes. The audacity of a Bentley, or a Wakefield; and still more the absurd affectation of a Brunck, would have shocked and appalled them. The notæ variorum of a later date are generally preferred by the scholar-like reader, and dense collector, whose opinions are formed on the prejudices of others.

The edition in usum Delphini was compiled by the instructors of Louis XV.—The commentators, chiefly Jesuits, were in number thirty-nine. The editor of the Statius was the most grossly ignorant; of the Virgil, the most learned.—And yet by a strange perversion of Literature, founded on the pristine vileness, and consequently the destruction of most copies of the Statius, the modest Virgil sells in quarto for less than a guinea, while the trash which loads the pages of Statius, is considered not dearly purchased at forty pounds. We must not think that the octavo edition, which is miserably mutilated, accurately resembles its prototype—and it may be worth remarking, that Lucan was the only author excluded from the collection by the jealousy of the French court.

The press of Paris laboured under the editions of the Byzantine historians, and fathers of the Church. They are published in ponderous folio—and in some measure, I trust, Dr. Routh of Magdalen College, Oxford, will improve their *size*, at least, in his meditated edition of the Anti-Nicene Fathers. The sense, the character of Tertullian is in itself sufficiently dark and dreary: the comments of Rigaltius add to the character of the African a dinginess more than native. I have often wished to see some of the works of the Fathers in a more modern form. The verses of Gregory Nazianzen on his own life, although deficient in metre, might be beautifully edited by a Dr. Kipling—and the vehement declamations of a Cyprian or Ambrose, might receive great aid from the polemic hand of a Dr. Horsley.

The "notitia litteraria" prefixed to each Latin volume of the Bipont edition, more than compensates for the crabbed names of the Professors, the blueness and vileness of their paper, and the stupidity of their correctors or syndics. The Greek editions are however useful in reducing the folios of Duker, Wesseling, &c. to the form of octavos, as immoderate in their expence, as they are moderate in their form.—The edition they are now publishing of Athenæus by Schweighusser, will serve to expose the gross ignorance of that *hard-named* professor in metrical nicety and decision.

Germany has been the nurse of the dull, France of the flippant, and England of the homely commentator. Let us examine these voluminous Germans, and perceive their chief merit, and defect. The Hollanders are included in the same literary atmosphere. Reiske and Rhunkenius, are learned, fair, and judicious. Schutz would be appropriately bound in *hog-skin*, and Herman in *calf*. The excursus's with which Professor Heyne favours the world, are said to be the productions of his pupils—Brunck was a bookseller of Alsace—he failed in trade—but his revilings still find it way to the fairs of Leipsic, and misnomered "*classical libraries*" of this metropolis. I could never but admire, that in one of his ingenious prefaces, he decries against the practice of subjoining a Latin translation to a Greek book, whereas in the twenty Greek authors he has published, he has never omitted to print his own condemnation. His *profession* of bookseller counter-balanced his *trade* as author—for on the Continent, I believe it is pretty generally known, that the modest merit of the latter, depends on the fostering care and judicious discernment of the former.—In a combination, therefore, (strange for the present day) he naturally acceded to the suggestions of his better half.

My paper informs me I cannot at present add to these crude remarks, but should the public approve them, they shall be resumed in a future Number.

CRINITUS.

Reply to Mr. Lyons.

MR. EDITOR,

In the letter, inserted in a former Journal, from Mr. S. Lyon, Hebrew Teacher in the University of Cambridge, to the Rev. Dr. Milner, containing observations on the word Elohim, Mr. L. adverts also to the sacred name יהוה, which he says is not a name, but an attribute derived from the eternal existence of the deity. That such is the derivation of the word there can be no doubt, but there are several passages in the Holy Scriptures, where it must be rendered as a proper name, and where the sense of these passages is destroyed by substituting *Adonai*, or the Lord, for Jehovah, which was not occasioned by the impossibility of pronouncing Jehovah, but from a Jewish superstition which has been followed by the Seventy, the Vulgate, and our version. One of these instances occurs in a verse twice cited in Mr. Lyon's letter, viz. 1 Kings, ch. 18, v. 39. יהוה הוא האלהים. Which is in our version "The Lord he *is* the God." Now as with us the Lord is always exactly synonimous with God, this is equivalent with saying, 'God, he is the God,' but the purport of the whole chapter being a contest between the priests of Baal, the idol of the Sidonians, and the priests of Jehovah, the living God of Israel, the exclamation should be thus rendered "Jehovah he *is* the God," for till the decision by the descent of the fire from heaven, all the people did not acknowledge Jehovah to be *the Lord*.

In Exodus chap. 15, v. 3, we find יהוה expressly said to be the *name* of God. יהוה שמו, "Jehovah *is* his name." Our translation here "the Lord *is* his name" is not sense, and Mr. Reeves justly says in a note on this verse, in his edition of the Bible, "The Lord, should here be rendered by the peculiar name Jehovah as it is in the Hebrew."

Again we find in Psalm 68, v. 4, יה שמו, where יה, *as* in the last syllable of Hallelujah, is obviously a contraction of the sacred name Jehovah. This our two versions have both ventured to render, *his name Jah*, but the Septuagint and Vulgate have Κυριος and Dominus.

In Psalm 110, v. 1, we find Jehovah and Adonai used in contradistinction to each other. יהוה לאדני, 'Jehovah said to Adonai' which we, following the Septuagint and Vulgate, read "The Lord said

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unto my Lord." Of this passage Mr. Reeves observes, (and he had a learned Hebrew assistant,) that 'My Lord is here understood by Jews as well as Christians to mean the Messiah,' it can then surely never be right to pronounce both the words alike.

In the Bibles used by the French reformed churches Jehovah is rendered *L'Eternel*, which at least keeps nearer to the etymology of the name than *the Lord*.

In your review of Mr. Marsh's book in the same Journal, I find it is taken for granted by him, that St. Matthew wrote his Gospel in Hebrew. It would take up too much of your valuable paper to enter at large into this subject, but one great objection, among many others, to this Hypothesis, is the improbability of the Gospel, which was intended for all descriptions of persons, being promulgated in a dead language, for such was the Hebrew in the time of Christ as much as the Latin is now, and even the quotation from the Psalms, *Eli Eli lama Sabacthani*, which our Saviour pronounced with his dying breath, is not from the original Hebrew but the Syriac version. E.

Origin of the System of Public Debt.

MR. EDITOR,

In my letter on the Venetian commerce, in the middle ages, inserted in your second volume, page 284, I forgot to mention a circumstance which is of the highest importance in the annals of public economy, and which seems to have escaped the notice of the generality of writers on the subject. The art of banking is vaguely ascribed to the Italian republics, and especially to that of Florence; and the primitive introduction of national debts is attributed to the Florentines, about the year 1344, from which period it was gradually adopted in the Italian and the remainder of the European states. The only writer in my knowledge who has kept free from this mistake is the accurate, and laborious Mr. Anderson, who in his *Historical Deduction*, traces back the origin of this practice to the Venetians about the latter half of the 12th century. As, however, he does not seem to make a proper distinction between the art of banking and the system of public debt, and as his statement is destitute of precision in the circumstances of time and events, I am happy to have it in my power to supply this deficiency. It is a fact completely established, that under the government of Vital Michele, the 32d doge of Venice, in 1171, owing to the expensive wars in which the republic was engaged in the east and west, *extraordinary contributions and stocks were raised in the state*; and after the deliberations of the great Council, on the first of August, the court of loans (la camera degl' imprestiti) *was erected. It was necessary to borrow from citizens, according to their respective wealth, making them creditors of the court* at the rate of 4 per cent. These passages I have translated literally from Sanuto's *Lives of the doges of Venice*, in the 22d volume of Muratori's *Rerum Italicarum Scriptores*. ITALICUS.

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° II.

Scribimus indocti, doctique—passim. *Horace.*
We write—although we scarce can read, we write.

A merchant of Bagdat, as the Persian writer relates, happening to pass through the territories of the Rajah of Bundelcund, observed a peasant standing by a small lake which skirts the city of Pennah. The man held in his hand a pebble, which he continued to eye with much attention, turning it over and over in his palm, and successively examining each side and angle. The merchant who had come to Bundelcund for the purpose of trafficking for precious stones, advanced towards the peasant, and requested to look at the pebble. "For this stone," said the merchant, weighing it in his hand, "I will give you a hundred rupees." "No, by the sacred Ganges," replied the peasant, "It is your's for a thousand, nor will I abate one rupee of the price." The merchant took a bag from his dromedary, and paid the thousand rupees into the hands of the peasant, for which in return he received the pebble. "I thank your simplicity, said he, for the ten thousand rupees which I shall receive of profit for this stone." "And I, rejoined the peasant, owe your discernment a thousand. A neighbouring herdsman this morning made a pebble skim the surface of this lake, quite across. I have for some time been in vain endeavouring to imitate his skill; and was just considering whether I could accomplish my object with that flat and angular stone which you hold in your hand, when you fortunately discovered to me that I possessed a treasure."

I felt myself nearly in the situation of the Indian peasant, on receiving the following letter this morning, from the neighbourhood of St. Paul's:

"*Mr. Nabob.*

"SIR,

"Saw your proposals in Lit. Journ. of the 16th, and shall be glad to treat. Perceive you understand the town, from hints thrown out in proposals. The story of Mrs. L. and the *Crim. con's.* of the last six months may be given with much advantage. Your hint from Abbé Vaillant shews you know the art of extracting; only you must not mention names. You may take all the Kengos from him, and the Jolibas from Park, without acknowledgement; and as the Waahabis are much talked of, you must be particular on them; say what you please, no one here knows any thing of them, so can't detect. I am afraid however the public will not allow of above one quarto (broad margin and plates) under your *own* name. I can get Dr. Hodge for a sum to father the book; and if you call it the *Life of Elfi Bey*, you may venture upon a couple of quartos without hazard. As Elfi Bey was here so lately, all the London news will come into his Life of course; and an account of the nations of Africa and his neighbours the Waahabis, will be exactly in point. You may perhaps prefer calling it the *Life of Abdul Wechab*; but this I leave to yourself. The style is very lame; has neither figures nor epithets; it must positively be *brightened*, or it will never go down. The grand matter of type, paper, and

plates, shall be considered when we come to treat. You hint at farther proposals and specimens in the Lit. Journ. but these of course will be deferred till we have talked, for which I request you will appoint time and place. Your obedient Servant,

* * * * * * *.

P. S. You shall find me very liberal. I will satisfy Dr. Hodge for his name, over and above every thing reasonable."

I never before knew the value of my life. Here I have an opportunity of turning it at last to some account, were my industry equal to the rank which I seem to hold in the favour of fortune. It is indeed impossible to say what I may be tempted to do by the prospect of something handsome: but really Dr. Hodge has so many things on his name at present, that I heard a wag, the other day at Hatchard's, compare it to a Falmouth coach, with sixteen passengers outside and the boot full of John Dories. A vehicle so overloaded is in great danger of breaking down; and I should not altogether like to have my works carried among a crowd of fractured limbs to the hospital.

Had I lived in the days of Charles II, I should certainly never have ventured on any thing, in the way of writing, beyond a billet-doux, or a rebus. The first half of an author's days, in those times, was spent in endeavouring to find a patron; and a great part of the other half in devising his praises. Dryden indeed turned his Dedications to some account; for by means of them and his Prefaces, he contrived to double his work. I am astonished that so excellent an expedient for making up a book, when one has very little to say on the main subject, should not have been recurred to by certain popular authors of our times. The contents of a dedication were in Dryden's days allowed to have as little reference to the title, as a modern piece of biography has to the name of the person which stands at the top of the page. Nor was there any more shame attached to the author's furnishing out his patron with the colours of fancy, where nature had been niggardly, than to Lady Transmarine's renewing herself with a liberal quantity of *farde* and *rouge* on a court-day. The colours employed by poor Otway in his dedications are indeed not a whit more natural than those of her ladyship; for he lavishes on Nell Gwynn all the epithets with which a Popish confessor was accustomed to address the Virgin Mary; although it is well known that Nell, with all her good qualities, was no more entitled to them, than another Mary who has lately incited her sex to assert their freedom, both by precept and example. The dangerous innovation of this last lady has however been pursued by a calamity new and hitherto unknown to her sex; for her husband has become her historian.

A Peer could formerly at a trifling expence and with no trouble, make a very conspicuous figure in the literary world: by receiving a dedication at a moderate price he at once became a Mecenas; and he had only to lend his name to some verses prepared for him by his dedicator, in order to be saluted as the second Virgil. Things are now very much altered. Our great men are not prompted by their vanity to pay such a price for an author's labours as the booksellers can afford to do from interest; and the labour of writing to please the public, and that of inventing virtues for a great man or his mistress, bear no comparison. This has, however, occasioned a terrible levelling of ranks in the literary world. If his play cannot possibly be acted, nor his poems read, a noble lord has no other resource but to print them at his own expence; and, instead of having the curiosity of the public excited by his train of dedicators, he is compelled to allure, by hot-pressing and calf-skin bindings, the kind perusal of his particular friends, who are presented with copies of his works. A critic, well-known to the literary nobility and gentry, has however assured me that there are still some good pickings to be had among the great, in the way of amending and preparing for the press.

The present offer from the neighbourhood of St. Paul's is not the only opening by which I have had an opportunity of stepping into the literary world. My jokes over a bottle of wine at Saunders's, so pleased the proprietor of a morning paper, who happened to join me at dinner, that he became extremely anxious to engage me as his punster; and when, from my hints about the fashionable Mr. B's assortment of wigs, and some secrets of lady Louisa's domestic economy, he began to perceive that I was a man of some consequence, and knew the world, he rose a hundred pounds in his terms, provided I would engage to make up his weekly list of fashionable arrangements. I have since frequently regretted that I did not accept his offer, as I understand it would have procured me a ready admittance into all parties, on the easy terms of next day describing them at length in the paper. Nor would even this have always been required, as many are so ambitious of honest fame, as to have an account of their parties regularly transmitted to the newspaper offices, a day at least before they take place, that they may not miss insertion on the following morning. I know some people are so unfair as to give all the honour of writing these accounts to butlers and waiting-maids; but for my own part I never could discover any thing, either in the style or sentiment, which might not have been fairly atchieved by the literary talents of even the highest circles. I might instance the gay Colonel who so punctually transmits advices of his important private galas to a fashionable morning paper. No one will deny that he displays the accomplishments of his wife and daughters in a manner so natural, and so peculiar to himself, that it is impossible it can be imitated by any one else.

My talent at crambo, which I acquired from my nurse, (who was a lineal descendant of that bard of Conway so celebrated by Gray) had once nearly acquired me very high theatrical distinction; as a celebrated composer who had heard me rhyme over a twelfth cake, applied to me to make a vehicle for the music of an opera he had just completed. I liked the proposal, as I felt an inclination to make a collection of my crambo lines; and I could with little trouble adapt them to the present occasion, as the length of the verse was the only thing that required to be considered. I had actually completed the first act,

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and the principal performers assembled one evening for a private rehearsal of it. A bravura, however, of the most finished execution, and which was entrusted to a first rate performer, happening to fall on an elegant description of a Welsh rabbit, it suggested to my mind, a most unlucky association of ideas. I had formerly almost choaked on a Welsh rabbit, while applauding the orator of a certain noted club; and the gesticulations of the lady who sung the bravura, so forcibly recalled the recollection of my former agonies, that I instantly sickened; nor was I afterwards able to add a single line to the piece. I am happy however to say that the composer suffered no material delay in the representation by this accident; for by application to a first-rate maker of vehicles, in eight-and-forty hours, he had a complete one returned to him, as it has since been performed with unbounded applause.

There are several other popular walks of literature in which I feel an honest consciousness that I could have excelled, had my talents been put to the test. I am particularly calculated for a reviewer, as I possess in an uncommon degree the faculty of comprehending the whole scope of a book after perusing only a few pages of it. I am such a master of German that I shall not be afraid to enter into a competition with the most fluent female translator, in fitting up the literary commodities of the fair of Leipzic for the English market. If the wit, (for so it is termed in Germany) of Kotzebue and his brother poets, should indeed continue to flow as copiously as hitherto, I would not engage for my industry holding out any considerable time.

The present ready market for all manner of literary commodities naturally produces an eager enquiry after something new to write about, and a desire, as eager, to anticipate the sale when any thing new occurs. I could mention some very curious contests between rival printers, who were within half a neck during the whole heat: each carried a feather, for neither of the authors proved any hindrance. Although I was a keen sportsman in my youth, I cannot now venture on such contests; yet I might save my distance among the crowd of imitators, who immediately follow in the rear of a performance which bears any marks of novelty, in the same manner as most of our fashionable turf-meetings conclude with a hack-race for horses of all ages. I have by me some very pretty imitations of our most approved modern pieces, both in prose and verse, which I mean at no great distance of time to lay before the public.

It might be imagined that any thing, however new and curious, would soon pall upon the public taste, when served up from so many quarters at once: but our modern receipts for dressing a work, are not less ingenious and varied, than those in a French system of cookery. I have known a book, in the course of half a year, assume the forms of an original work, an abridgment, elegant extracts, and anecdotes of the author and his writings; and yet for many months afterwards I could discover it, under various shapes and in fragments of different sizes, contributing its share to the manifold ingredients of some of our popular monthly repositories.

I have been often strongly tempted to commence a writer of fashionable novels, but have as often been prevented by my extreme unwillingness to encroach on the privileges of the fair sex. One lady, who kindly admits of my morning visits, I frequently find turning this species of writing to good account. She has fortunately kept a common-place book for these last twenty years; and now when she has had a bad run at cards, or when her milliner becomes importunate, she has merely to copy out a few scores of pages, and carry them to that convenient literary receptacle in the city, where they are disposed of at the current price of five guineas the novel volume. I cannot say I feel altogether easy in this lady's company, as I know that I, as well as all her other acquaintances, are down in her book, and that every thing I say or do may one day be spread abroad, in the same manner as a sister authoress lately gave all her May-fair friends to the world. Nay, I begin to fear that I am not altogether safe in my own apartments. It is well known that a great part of the waiting-maids and valets at the west end of the town are in the pay of some one of our fashionable novelists; and I shrewdly suspect my man Timothy has been bribed into a conspiracy against the secrecy of my private transactions, for I have perceived the dog, for several days past, counting my cups of chocolate, and committing to memory my daily questions about the state of the weather.

As I have got upon literary affairs, I shall conclude this paper by inserting a letter which I received two days ago, and which relates to a subject that was once supposed to be connected with the province of the belles-lettres:

"*Mr. Nabob.*

"SIR,

"As you may have it in your power to give me some useful hints with regard to the *costume* of foreign countries, I have resolved, by way of encouragement, to communicate to you a most important piece of intelligence. If you are the first to give it to the public, it will certainly establish your reputation, as it is a common concern to every person of taste in the kingdom. I have long been astonished that no one has attempted to reform the unnatural practice which prevails on the stage, of introducing men and women without any of those attendants who are constantly found to accompany them in real life. If a sportsman were to appear attended by his dog, a countryman by his pig, and an old maid by her tabby cat, the part would immediately be distinguished, nor would mistakes so frequently arise from the exquisite sentiments, which our elegant dramatists of the present day put alike into the mouths of all their characters. I own that a very great step has lately been made towards a more natural mode of stage representation, by the introduction of a real dog, and a real piece of water at our national theatre of Drury-Lane; an improvement which does equal honour to the genius of the dramatist who imagined it, and to the taste of the manager who brought it forward. With all due deference however to these great authorities, I must observe that much still remains to be done. A play should read as well as act: but in the piece to which I allude, not a syllable is put into the dog's mouth; and how then, I

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would ask, is it possible that *Carlo* should receive due attention from those who live at a distance, or those who may live a hundred years hence? Aristophanes understood this much better; and therefore we find his chorus of Greek frogs bearing their due part in the dialogue. Now it is from this great example that I mean to deduce my projected improvement. I intend to begin with adapting his comedy of *The Frogs* to the modern stage; and have for this purpose not only studied with great care the various cadences of a frog's voice, but have even prepared the accompaniment to the airs which will fall to the part of the new performers. A real pond, with a verdant margin of rushes, will be introduced on the stage; and in order to exhibit an interesting incident from nature, a French cook will suddenly rush upon the innocent wantons in the midst of their carolling, twist off the necks of some dozen of them, and toss them lifeless into his basket. The bloody murderer, however, appalled at the havoc he has made, will suddenly burst forth in a violent execration of his master's voracious appetite, which compelled him to imbrue his hands in guiltless blood; he will then proceed to bewail their untimely fate, in nearly the same pathetic strains as the tall Irishman, in the late comedy, lamented over his innocent leg of lamb.

I know great exertions will be made at the other house to anticipate me. I know that two fox-hounds are in training to open across the stage in a forthcoming opera, and that the composer has already prepared the accompaniment to their voices. But I would have him to know, that my pond-full of frogs is also purchased, and that it is in vain to enter into a competition with me; for a London audience has too much taste and liberality, not to give a marked preference to one who introduces a *real novelty* into their public amusements.

I am, Sir, your most humble Servant,

OLIO HITCHAPLAY.

POLITICS.

The Volunteer System.

SO much has been said and done with regard to this subject, that it has at last become very interesting. Like many other measures which governments adopt it was very little understood at the time it was had recourse to, very little study has been employed to investigate its nature since; and this ignorance is abundantly visible in the actions which we see. The petty incidents which happen, one after another, still suggest as they appear, some new idea with regard to the volunteers. If the incident of the day is gratifying to the persons in rule, the idea formed is favourable to the volunteers; if the incident is not gratifying, the idea of the day is against the volunteers. From such narrow, partial, trifling considerations, every thing done with regard to this business seems evidently to proceed; no general comprehensive view of the subject is possessed, from which a train of connected and systematic measures would flow; the action of one day contradicts that of another; silly regulations are adopted, which perplex, and do nothing more; and regulations are adopted, and actions pursued which tend to degrade the whole system, and will lead to its dissolution.

At one time the combined and representative wisdom and dignity of this nation is called upon to return its thanks, a compliment of great meaning, undoubtedly, if any thing among men deserves to be so accounted, to the volunteers, for their spirited, patriotic, magnanimous, and *voluntary* appearance, to defend their country, its laws, and its property. Immediately after, the crown lawyer is called upon for an opinion which makes these same spirited, patriotic, magnanimous, and voluntary defenders, bound, enlisted, compulsory soldiers. The volunteers of the metropolis are honoured with a royal review, and by the most flattering testimony of the approbation of their sovereign. Nay, to such a height is respect for the volunteers carried, that when a measure of the utmost importance is proposed in parliament, the appointment of an experienced field-officer to each corps, the minister declared in his place he could not consent to the adoption of it, till he had an opportunity of consulting the inclination of gentlemen belonging to volunteer corps. Presently after one of the ministers, as colonel of a corps, wishes to impose an officer upon his corps, contrary to the strongest desire of that corps, and by the infringement of a right universally understood, at least by the volunteers around the metropolis, to belong to them, that of electing their own officers; and the king is advised, most inconsistently, to publish his approbation of this conduct.

One circumstance relating to volunteer corps, has given birth to a great many words, most expressive of ignorance, and want of consideration, that is the committees, a subject, it seems, of great odium and terror to the ministers. This subject has been laid hold of by the enemies of the ministers, and very artfully, and maliciously employed to kindle a sort of alarm among those whose old fever of apprehension is not yet altogether extinguished. They hoped another advantage from this machination. Judging meanly of the ministers, they trusted to throw them into a hurricane of terror by their exaggerated forebodings; and thus to hurry them into violent, offensive, and absurd measures, till they should become too contemptible, and too odious to be any longer endured in their places. We are sorry that the ministers should of late have exhibited so many indications of having fallen into the snare; and seem in so fair a way of justifying the expectations of their enemies. Those men into whose hands arms have been entrusted for the protection of their king, and of every constituted authority in the state, who have been complimented in so extraordinary a manner for the admirable spirit they displayed, are now, without a shadow of reason to suppose that this spirit is altered, or likely to alter, to be treated with suspicion, to be treated as if they were more ready to pull down all constituted authorities, than to shed their blood and expend their means in defence of them.

Whether it be hope or fear which is naturally suggested by the existence of committees of volunteer

corps, they belong to the system, they are inseparable from it, and ministers should have formed a deliberate judgment on the effects before they adopted the measure. The simplest view of the constitution of volunteer corps will shew that committees are a part of that constitution, and that the corps cannot exist without them. To attempt then to talk of the committees of volunteers, as being objects of suspicion, without the corps themselves being at the same time objects of suspicion, is too ridiculous.

Regular, and militia, and fencible regiments are paid by government; every expence incurred by the regiment is defrayed by government, and to obey orders, and receive its pay, is all its business, and all its concern. The individuals have no joint disbursement to make, and no general interest to manage; any selection of persons to manage it, therefore, is not wanted, and would be absurd to be made. But the whole nature of the case is totally and absolutely changed with regard to volunteer corps, at least all that part of them which serves without pay. The expence of the regiment is not defrayed by government; the individuals of whom the corps is composed put their hands in their pockets, and defray it themselves; instead of receiving pay from government, they incur an expence; a certain sum of money is wanted annually to defray the expences of the corps, and is received by contribution from the members. Two things here are necessary to be done. It is necessary to collect the money from the individuals; and it is necessary to pay it away as the occasions of the corps require. This is a piece of business, and that not the most agreeable, which volunteer corps must transact, from which all regiments of another description are exempted. This business must be done by some person or persons in the corps. It is a business which concerns the individuals belonging to the corps, and them only. They alone therefore have the right to appoint whom they may chuse to conduct that business; and no other person or set of persons, government as little as any other, can, without open injustice pretend to dictate to them to whom to entrust the management of the money which they voluntarily take out of their pockets, and which is as much their private property, after it is deposited in the common fund, as it was while yet in their own hands. To interfere with the most absolute freedom of volunteers in the choice of persons to conduct the pecuniary affairs of the corps, is to commit an outrage upon the right of property; and is nearly the same as to send a person into my house, to pillage and carry off, whatever government may direct him. The injury might be greater in degree, but not different in kind. If I, and any part of my fellow subjects, have joined our money together, for any joint, and lawful object, does any individual but ourselves, does government possess any authority over it more than it possessed before it was thus disposed of? What opposition would not any attempt to usurp so unjust an authority lawfully raise in this country! The members of every company of a corporation have a common fund, which entirely resembles that of a volunteer corps: they select a certain number of their body to manage that fund, who form a committee exactly resembling the persons chosen by volunteers to manage their smaller funds. Has government ever interfered with these companies and corporations, in the right of chusing the persons whom they judge most qualified to manage their funds with advantage? Would not any such attempt be resisted as the most flagrant injustice? The Directors of the East India Company, are a committee chosen by the proprietors to manage the funds of the corps. What would these proprietors say, if government were to address them, as they have been advised to address the volunteers; "You must no longer have this committee which you call your Board of Directors. It is possible you may chuse democrats, as you have sometimes shewn inclination to do. You must henceforth have your Directors chosen by the Governor General of India, who most resembles the colonel of a volunteer corps."

In fact it seems to be the childish terror of a name, which has got into the minds of the persons who raise the cry against volunteer committees. If we look at the thing, it is the officers of volunteer corps, who, if any danger can be supposed, must be the authors of it. In the first place they form what is in reality a committee in every corps, whether it goes by that name, or not; and in many corps they meet regularly and deliberate, in what they call a military committee. In the next place, they are in general neither persons of more understanding, nor better principles, nor even greater wealth or station, than the members of the pecuniary committee; and in the last place they only have the opportunity of addressing the corps when assembled together, and acquiring any influence with it, while the members of the pecuniary committee are humble privates, and never heard or seen.

If government should propose, what we do not know that it means to propose, but what it can never effectuate, that the funds of corps should be entrusted to the officers, what advantage would it gain? The officers form, to all intents and purposes, a committee of the corps. Government would then only transfer the funds of the corps from one committee to another; a committee on whose loyalty not a particle more of dependence could be placed than on that of the other; and a committee possessed of much greater powers of doing mischief.

In fact, by some late proceedings, government has appeared to be no less actuated by suspicion of the officers of volunteer corps, than of their committees. It wishes to replace these officers by persons chosen by the commanding officer. This may do very well where the commanding officer is a creature of government; but how will it answer when the commanding officer is in opposition to government? How will it answer in another case, known to be pretty frequent, in which the commanding officer is as much, or more inclined to democracy than the majority of the corps? We speak now of this attempt as suited to the views of the minister; we shall speak of it as consistent with justice and the public good, hereafter.

How very silly then appears to be the aristocratical terror, about the persons chosen to regulate the petty accounts of a volunteer corps, merely be-

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cause they are called a committee! A government degrades itself irrecoverably, when it appears to be affected by motives so void of all worth and sense. The whole nation is made up of committees of a similar description. What are the persons in every parish who manage the general concerns of the parish for the maintenance of the poor, and the regulation of the police? Are they not a committee of the inhabitants? Is not their power and influence enormous, when compared with the trifling concerns of a volunteer corps? Suppose a conspiracy were to be formed among all these committees throughout the kingdom, to overturn the government, would they not be far more dangerous than the committees of volunteer corps? But has any fear, ever been, for that reason, entertained of them? Why not? Because such a conspiracy was a thing utterly improbable; and no less so is any similar conspiracy of the committees of volunteer corps.

How numerous, of late years, have become friendly societies, among the lower orders, for providing a fund to maintain them in sickness, or aid their wives and families, after their deaths. The affairs of each of these societies are managed by a committee chosen by the members. If government proposes to destroy all the committees in the kingdom, it will have enough to do.

But it is said the committees of volunteers are peculiarly dangerous, because the volunteers have arms in their hands. We have stated already that if any danger of this kind exist, which we firmly believe does not, it arises altogether from the committee of officers, and never can from those who manage the petty accounts of the corps. These last have scarcely ever any intercourse with the corps, but as individuals with individuals; and would have just as much influence if they were not members of the committee. They have not the smallest opportunity of acquiring influence as members of the committee. No act of theirs is binding upon the corps. They have no favours to confer. They have no punishments to inflict. Their simple and humble business is to attend to the receipts and disbursements, and present regular statements of them to the corps. The officers are in a situation completely different. They are continually in the eye of the corps. The nature of military obedience, however relaxed, always begets a considerable degree of reverence toward the commander. All favours and penalties are in the regulation of the officers; and they it is, who, in every sense of the word, must be understood to lead, and have the direction of the corps.

We cannot help regarding the talk of those who express their dislike of the committees of volunteer corps as a proof that they either do not know the constitution of their country, or are not very hearty in their approbation of it. Nothing can be more completely in the spirit of that constitution than the appointment of those committees. To what principle is the origin of the house of commons owing, and on what principle is its existence now founded; but that whenever persons are called upon to contribute their property, either they themselves, or others whom they chuse, should be present to limit the sum, an direct the employment. For what was it, but the maintenance of this right, that our ancestors opposed the levying of ship-money and benevolences?

It is to be observed that the volunteers who serve without pay, are encouraged to raise money for the public service, without the vote or controul of parliament. This we consider in the first place, to be highly unconstitutional, and to lead, unless by careful prevention, to the most enormous abuses. It may be said that it is voluntary. But so were benevolences, as the name imports; yet they were one of the great causes which rendered the revolution necessary. The fact is that the volunteers, each corps in a particular corner, raise money for the public service, not under the authority and management of their constitutional representatives in parliament. Faithful however to the principle, on which representatives are sent to parliament, they chuse individuals to superintend the management of the money which they voluntarily grant. If government shall not only get money raised for the public service, without the vote of parliament, but shall take in fact the management of that money into their own hands, by interfering with the free choice of the contributors with regard to the persons appointed to manage it, they have only to extend their practice on that single principle to render the crown totally independent of parliament, and to establish an absolute, and uncontroulable monarchy. We have no intention to insinuate that this is the design of the present government; but it is the nature and tendency of the actions of public men, as well as the views of the actors, which ought to be attended to by the guardians of the public welfare.

There is something perfectly singular and anomalous in the plan proposed, as it seems, for the election of volunteer officers. It cannot fail to appear strange and unaccountable, that the mode, universally followed, and to which the volunteers were even invited by government, when the corps were formed, should all at once, by an arbitrary mandate, and without a single reason given, be changed, and another adopted in its stead, perfectly contrary to the expectations of the volunteers, and to what they conceive justly to belong to them. What possible reason can be given why volunteers should elect the whole officers of the corps at its formation, but not elect individuals to fill up vacancies? Even to talk of any difference between the two cases in respect either to the right or the expediency of the power of election is sufficient to expose any man to ridicule. How impolitic, how mean an appearance it has, when you want the service of a particular set of men, to accept of them under certain conditions; and when the men seem to be fixed, so that they cannot recede, to endeavour to alter these conditions, and impose others less agreeable! We have taxed our imagination for every reason whether sound or sophistical, which can be urged for depriving the volunteers of the power of electing their officers; and there is not one which does not appear to us to hold stronger in the case of the first and general election, than in the succeeding partial ones. It is said, the king's prerogative entitles him to regulate military affairs as he pleases. The king's prerogative in this matter we will not at present dis-

pute. In the management of the troops, whose maintenance is voted by parliament it is very extensive. But may there not be a wise and an unwise exercise of the king's prerogative? If the volunteers formed corps, under the notion that it belonged to voluntary and unpaid service to have the power of saying under whom they would serve, if they were allowed to form their corps under this notion, and if it look like cheating them to alter this condition, after their service is obtained, is it not positively unwise to insist upon altering it?

But where has Mr. Tierney, or Mr. Secretary Yorke seen the king's prerogative exercised in giving colonels the right of electing their own officers? Who ever heard of a colonel in the army, or in the militia, insisting upon chusing his own captains or lieutenants? This is a mode of electing officers perfectly new. If the mode which the volunteers were allowed to follow, was to be altered, could not the mode established in other military bodies have been adopted, but an individual, chosen by that very power which he attempted to trample upon, must presume to introduce a very extraordinary fashion of his own, and usurp to himself a power, which whether it belonged to his men or not, could by no law or precedent, and to no good end belong to him!

It has escaped nobody's observation that the dissatisfactions with volunteer committees and elections were never heard till the lawyer of the crown had given an opinion that volunteers could not resign. This is an unlucky coincidence, which creates a dangerous mistake.

For our own parts we paid no regard to this opinion of the Attorney General from the beginning: we were well assured that it was rash, and not authorized by the acts; and that it would not be confirmed by the courts. We know that almost all the professional men were of our opinion; and indeed the case seemed so very simple and clear, that we wanted nobody's authority. The opinion of a lawyer of eminence has now been published with his name; and we suppose that hereafter the resignation of no volunteer will be refused. A volunteer, and not permitted to resign! It is a contradiction in terms. As well may you talk of a freeman, when chained to an oar in a galley! It is an absurdity which the British legislature never intended to establish, and which it in fact did not establish. Its acts have only been misinterpreted.

Though we will ever speak thus freely of any infringement upon what we consider to belong to the very nature of a volunteer establishment, the most perfect freedom and even great indulgence, we have objections, which we think very strong, to the system itself. We have mentioned one already, that it gives occasion to the raising of money for the public service without the authority of parliament. This circumstance, small as it is at present, we can conceive to be so swelled and magnified, as to be very formidable. We must confess we do not like the idea of men serving as soldiers, without pay. It appears to us to contravene one of the most powerful checks, provided by the constitution against the excess of kingly power. The king's authority over the military is subject to no controul, but that of dependence upon parliament for money to afford pay. This check has hitherto been perfectly sufficient. But if an ambitious king shall procure a number of men to serve without pay, sufficient to answer his purposes, he is independent of parliament. The danger of any future event of this sort is not probably great; but the idea is not altogether unworthy of the attention of those who are anxious to preserve the springs of the constitution clear and unimpeded.

There is something excessively absurd and impolitic in the mode in which the people are classed according to this system. We do not talk of the mixture of young and old, fat, and lean, encumbered, and not encumbered; which to be sure in a military respect is bad enough. We mean the tossing together persons with every difference of education, qualifications, and circumstances, into one indiscriminate and unseemly mass. The accurate classification of the members of the state has in every age been accounted one of the most delicate, and important parts of the duty of the statesman or legislator. But we do not think that ever a more complete confusion of classes and employments, was exhibited than by the volunteer system. Persons of the most exalted qualifications are found drudging at the business to which the meanest of the populace are competent. Gentlemen soldiers has become a common term; which we never hear without pain. Was ever a gentleman intended to be a common soldier? He was intended undoubtedly to be among the foremost in exposing himself to danger for his country. But he has surely another way in which to do so, than as a common soldier. There is no gentleman, who has not an influence over some, be they more or less, of inferior place. His natural station, in any emergence of his country, is in leading on and directing these. If he is ranked with them, and made to perform the same offices, his talents are abused, and his time lost.

Another doubt has arisen in our mind, as this subject is full of difficulties, and anomalies; whether, in reality, the king's prerogative extends to volunteers, in any respect as soldiers. That they become soldiers, when the invasion of an enemy happens, or when he appears in force upon the coast, is not doubted. But till then we cannot perceive in what respect their condition differs from that of any other subject. They are amenable to no tribunal, but the ordinary courts of law. A number of conclusions, of some importance follow from this idea, if it is well founded. These we shall at present leave our readers to draw for themselves.

The encouragement of volunteer corps, as a hasty expedient to meet a sudden emergency, when we were threatened with invasion, and eager to have the force which soonest could be ready to meet the enemy, might be very proper and wise. But the volunteer system, as a permanent thing on its present scale, will never do. Its contexture is too loose. It must fall to pieces of its own weight. Too many of the parts of the machine are opposite, and obstructing to one another to permit a motion of any kind to go on for any considerable time.

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The truth is, a regular army, maintained by the

public, and subject to the controul of parliament, is the only species of military force, consistent with the present state of society. And it is at once the simplest, the safest, and most economical means of defence.

Political History, Foreign and Domestic.

The same contradiction as usual prevails in the accounts of the French preparations for invasion. Some reports are, that every thing is in complete and formidable readiness; it was even asserted some time ago, that embarkations of troops had commenced. Various letters and declarations by persons lately come from France have been given as authority to these statements. It is reported, on equally good authority, on the other hand, that in none of the ports either in France or Holland are preparations yet made at all sufficient for any serious attack upon England; that the craft has been removed down the rivers to Flushing, in apprehension of the frost, when being fixed, it would no longer serve for alarm or intimidation to England; that the invasion is deferred till a late period in the Spring; and that it is the opinion of the most intelligent people in France that it will never be attempted at all.

On the 31st of December, as had been announced, Bonaparte left Paris, to pay his reviewing visit to the preparations on the coast. After inspecting with great minuteness the naval and military preparations, at Boulogne and the adjacent places, he returned to the capital on the 6th of January, that he might be present at the opening of the Session of the Legislative Body. It was opened by a speech from the minister of the Interior, in which he confines himself to the domestic affairs of the country, and boasts, as is natural, of the great improvements which are carrying on under the auspices of the Great Head of the nation, notwithstanding the avocations and confusion of war.

All accounts from Holland concur in the deplorable condition to which that country is reduced, in consequence of the great pecuniary exactions made upon the people, and the requisitions of men and boats to be employed in the expedition against England.

The disputes respecting the balance of the Catholic and Protestant interests in the Empire still subsist. It is said that the Elector of Bavaria has agreed to support the Catholic interest, provided an increase of influence be conferred upon him, as well as upon the emperor.

It appears that the First Consul has interfered in the late disputes between the Emperor and Elector respecting the disputed territory; has declared his dissatisfaction with certain proceedings, of the Emperor, according to some accounts, of the Elector according to others; and in the mean time has declared the necessity of marching a body of French troops into the neighbourhood of the Electorate. This it is said, has excited more alarm at Vienna than at Munich. It is reported that the First Consul has lately behaved with great rudeness and insolence to the Imperial minister at Paris.

The Grand Seignor has, it appears, dispatched orders for the surrender of Alexandria, and for the evacuation of the country; and has consented to the stipulations of the Beys for the restoration of the ancient order of things in Egypt.

Things are still in a precarious state with regard to the neutrality of Spain.

Intelligence has been received that the remainder of the French forces in St. Domingo, under General Rochambeau, being reduced to the last extremity by the Blacks, have surrendered to the English squadron, to the amount, according to the first accounts, of 5000, according to later accounts of 8000 men; who along with the general have been conveyed to Jamaica. Dollars of the value of 100,000*l.* are said to have remained in the military chest, when it fell into our hands. Four French frigates, two corvettes, and sixteen merchantmen, in the harbour of Cape François, at which place the troops surrendered, were captured at the same time. Thus is the vast island of St. Domingo in the sole possession of the negroes.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

A copious and singular collection of nearly twelve hundred Chinese Books has just been imported, and may be seen by applying to Dr. Montucci, at *Pancras*, who has instructions from the Proprietor to dispose of it. The whole is arranged under the following eight Classes:—

Class I. *Kuon-hoa*,* or the classical language of the Mandarines, as now generally spoken and written by the literati of the empire. This class is subdivided into the three following heads:

1. *Chuen-çu*, or Ancient Characters, containing four Dictionaries on that subject, each upon a different plan, and often quoted in the *Mémoires des Missionaires de Pékin*, and the Phil. Trans. Vol. LIX. consisting of 33 volumes.

2. *Chim-çu*, or Modern Characters of an upright form, containing twelve Dictionaries, each on a different plan. Two of them are MSS. with the interpretation in Latin and Portuguese, 92 vols.

3. *Ju-ven* or Works on Literature, containing a Work on the Art of Poetry. Three works upon antiquities. Two collections of fables with prints; and a glossary, 68 vols.

Class II. *Kim*,† or Sacred Books: these are also divided into three Classes. What renders this class peculiarly interesting is, that many volumes are interleaved with MS. notes and translations by the Missionaries.

1. *Xam*, or upper Class of the *Kim*, containing the celebrated Five *Kim* with various commentaries, called, 1. *Ye-kim*, 2. *Xu-kim*, 3. *Xi-Kim*, 4. *Li-ki*, and 5. *Chum-çieu*.‡

* Dr. Montucci writes the Chinese Words according to the orthography invented by the Portuguese, as the most approved, and followed by *Couplet*, *Prayer*, *Fourmont*, and others.—The hyphens between the Chinese words are intended to avoid confusion in reading; and for the same reason all marks usually pointing out the *tones* and *aspirations* have been omitted.

† *Kim* properly means *Collection*: and so are stiled almost all the Works published before the extinction of the Dynasty *Cheu*, 250 years before Christ, and were *collected* by order of the Emperors of the Dynasty *Han*, after the general conflagration of books, (Agriculture, Soothsaying, and Medicine only excepted,) ordered by that execrable tyrant *Xi-hoam-ti*, of the Dynasty of *Sin*, in the year 212 before Christ.

‡ All these volumes are held in the highest veneration by the Chinese of all classes—They are all replete with maxims of the most sound morality calculated to point out righteousness to kings, ministers of state and private individuals. But there may be found in each of them some characteristic mark to distinguish one from another. The first serves as a book of Soothsaying, the second as an historical account from the emperor *Yao*, 2340 years before Christ, down to the end of the Dynasty Cheu 250 years before

To this class belongs also the *Hi-çu*, or Confucius commentary upon the *Ye-Kim* or six mysterious exagrams left by *Fo-hi* and his first successors about 2900 years before Christ. This collection has no less than eighteen different commentaries and editions of this singular book, 222 vols.

2. *Chum*, or the middle class of *Kim*, containing the other Books of Confucius and his disciples. The ancient glossary *Ulh-hia*. The *Li-ki*. The *Cheu-Li*. The *Kia-Li*, and the works of the celebrated philosopher *Chu-çu*, 195 vols.

3. *Hia*, or the lower class, containing the works of *Lao-çu*, *Choan-çu*, *Liu-xi*, and other philosophers of the sect *Tao-su*. Some of these are of suspicious authority, 108 vols.

Class III. *Y*, or Mythology. Containing the idols, rites, and superstitions of the Bonzes, 71 vols.

Class IV. *Su*, or History: which is also divided into its three main branches:

1. *Su-ki*, or Historical Periods. Embracing the universal and particular History of the several Dynasties—also Chronology, 134 vols.

2. *Yu-tu*, or Geography, including Itineraries, and Travels, 32 vols.

3. *Pe-kia*, or Biography, containing the Lives of eminent Philosophers, illustrious Women, and that of Confucius and his Disciples, 89 vols.

Class V. *Liu*, or Law, containing the Code of Laws. The proceedings of the Six *Pu*, or Tribunals. Among these there is an interesting MS. in twelve volumes, containing the Statutes of the present Tartaric Dynasty *Ta-çin*. 53 vols.

Class VI. *Sim-li*, or Natural Philosophy; including the celebrated system of that Science, published by command of the learned *Yum-lo*, third emperor of the Dynasty *Ta-mim* about 1400 after Christ. Also, Prints upon all subjects of Experimental Philosophy, Astronomy, &c.—And the celebrated work *Cheu-pi-kim*, being a treatise on Geometry supposed to have been written about 2300 years before Christ; since the principles of it were adopted by Yu the Great in the operations necessary to liberate the country from a very destructive and general inundation which he effectually did in the year 2282 before Christ.

Class VII. *Ca-xu*, or Miscellaneous Books. 89 vols.

Class VIII. *Si-ju-ven*, or Works of the Missionaries who are called by the Chinese the Occidental Literati: containing some works of Father *Ricci*, *Aloisius*, &c.—Also a Treatise on Astronomy in 7 vols. with MSS. plates, 38 vols. Total 1182.

Doctor Montucci shews out of the above Collection a variety of interesting volumes of the remotest antiquity. Among the rest, the following deserve particular notice:—

Lo-xu‡-*chim-go*, or the classical ancient characters rendered into their perfect form *Chim*. (See above Class I. No. 2.) A work in 5 large quarto volumes, measuring 12 inches by 7, on superfine white paper; wherein every ancient character is exhibited upon a large scale, and then shewn in a reduced modern one with pronunciation, explanation, &c.

2. *Poei-ven-ium-fu*, Or combinations of composition and harmonic similarities of sound: being a Dictionary of Rhymes, wherein every character is exhibited in all its possible combinations with others, for which authorities are always quoted. The characters are arranged according to their rhyming sounds and similar tones.

Po-ku-tu, or Plates on learned antiquities. A Work in twenty volumes, containing a numerous series of vases, musical instruments, metallic mirrors, &c. with ancient inscriptions, exhibited afterwards in modern characters.—The whole is arranged according to the time of their supposed execution from the earliest Dynasty down to the *Ham*, about 200 years before Christ.

4. *Cheu-ye-çiuen-xu*, or the most perfect writings on the *Ye-kim*, (see above Class II. No. 1.) by *Cheu-kum*: a celebrated law-giver who flourished about 1122 before Christ, and who was the first that gave an extensive commentary on the *Ye-kim*, after the very abstruse and extremely laconic one by *Ven-vam* his father. The text of this commentary is printed in its genuine ancient style of characters called *Ko-teu*,§ and then exhibited on a very diminutive scale in their corresponding modern form to the right of each character.

5. *Lo-kim-tu*, or *Plates* on the Six *Kim* of the first class (see above Class II. No. 1.) consisting of six immense folio volumes, 16 inches by 10, wherein all subjects mentioned in the *Kims* are represented in a numerous series of engravings on wood, with their names and references.

6. *Tao-te-kim*, or The Rule of Virtue. A celebrated *Kim* of the third class, written by *Lao-çu*, contemporary with Confucius, 550 years before Christ; wherein strong allusions are found to the mystery of the trinity of God. This work is a MS. in 2 vols. most elegantly written, and with a commentary never published.—A Latin translation of this very singular work is in the Library of the Royal Society; presented to them by Mathew Raper, Esq. F.R.S.

7. *Y-yo-lo*, or a Description of a foreign Country. An elegant volume containing an Account of an Embassy of the Chinese to Peter the Great at Moscow, which took place in the latter years of the reign of *Kam-hi* of the present Dynasty, who died in 1722.

8. *Sin-chi-y-siam-tu*, or New Engravings containing Plates on the most important images. Two large volumes 15 inches by 8, containing a representation of the Observatory at Pekin, and of other mathematical instruments constructed both by the Chinese and by the Missionaries; embracing all branches of Mechanics and other parts of Experimental Philosophy.

§ These Characters were called *Ko-teu*, from the resemblance they bore to a Southern insect of that name; they were in use till the conflagration of books. (See the 2nd Note.)

We understand that the magnificent library of the late Thomas Astle, Esq. is, by the directions of his will, to be sold in the course of the spring; a collection highly interesting to the lovers of Literature in general, but particularly to the lovers of English antiquity and of English history.

It will be a matter of great gratification to those who know how to appreciate that splendid collection of Saxon Characters, Saxon MSS. Ancient Registers, and other documents, tending to the illustration of our early constitution and history (and to which the public is so highly indebted for many of the learned Essays presented by the late Mr. Astle to the Antiquarian and other learned Societies), that they are not to be separated, but are bequeathed by him to his friend the Marquis of Buckingham, to be added to his magnificent library at Stowe, which will now have the singular advantage of uniting in it, and that of the venerable and learned Charles O'Connor, the Antiquarian of Ireland, the most valuable and the earliest Illustrations of Irish and of Saxon Antiquity.

Many of the antient Saxon rolls and charters have been already communicated to the public, and the specimens of

Christ. The third as a collection of Hymns and Moral Codes—the fourth as a code of rites to be observed in worshipping the Xam-ti, or the Sovereign of Sovereigns, as well as the rules of urbanity among friends, or towards superiors, not excluding the emperors—the fifth as the master-piece of all, the works of Confucius.

‡ Those Dictionaries which treat of the Analysis of Characters by tracing them to their ancient primitive form: or which confined their explanation to the most authentic of them, are generally entitled *Lo-xu*, or *Six* methods of *Writing*, alluding to the *Six rules* of constructing characters, according to the most judicious principles established by the first inventors of them.

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the Irish manuscripts, so far as they tend to illustrate the remote history of that kingdom, its laws, its customs, and the progress of society and sciences in it, have been for some years digested, under the immediate eye of the Marquis, by the grandson of the very learned collector of these valuable materials, and will, we trust, speedily make a most inestimable addition to this most interesting branch of literature.

A second edition of the System of Chemistry by Dr. Thomas Thomson, greatly enlarged, and improved, will be published in the course of a few weeks.

Percival's account of the Island of Ceylon has been translated into German, by Mr. J. A. Bergk, of Leipsic, who has added to his translation an interesting chapter on the pearl-fishery and a variety of instructive notes and remarks.

Schwickert in Leipsic has lately published a work of high value and importance for the study of the new testament under the title "*Monogrammata Hermeneutices librorum Novi Fœderis. Scripsit Christianus Daniel Beckius. Pars prima. Hermeneutice Novi Testamenti universa.*" The work is divided into five chapters, the first of which is inscribed—*De exegesi et hermeneutice N. T. ejusque fatis*; and the second, *de indole librorum, N. T.*; the third contains—*Crises N. T. librorum leges*; the fourth *Hermeneutices N. T. præcepta*" and the fifth *Crises subtiliaris ad libros N. T. applicatæ præcepta.*

SCIENTIFIC.

An *ingenious* German *Landloper*, has conferred on Bonaparte a very material favour, by publishing the "Description of a swimming apparatus, by means of which whole fleets may be *occasionally* destroyed, and whole armies carried over rivers and seas."—The *important* invention consists of a wooden frame in the shape of a Greenland boat, yet with a round stern, covered with boards, and throughout lined with linen, rendered impenetrable to water by a cover of putty and varnish. On this machine the swimmer is directed to ride, furnished with two broad tin-plates fastened to the feet, to serve as fins!!—

The Imperial Academy of Arts at Petersburgh, held on the 3d of September last, the usual annual meeting for the distribution of prizes for the best works of the pupils. Mr. *Pimevow*, sculptor, and *Predkoy* and *Bestrednay*, medallists, obtained the large gold medal, which in addition to other privileges, such as wearing a sword, &c. invests the artists with the right of studying their art three years in foreign countries, at the expence of the Academy. One of the most able pupils, to whom both now, as well as the two preceding years the large gold medal was unanimously adjudged, is unfortunately a serf or bondman of a Russian grandee, and as such, according to the rules of the Academy, disqualified to obtain a prize and much less the material privileges attached to the large gold medal. The three medals, are, however, laid by for the unfortunate young artist, until his emancipation, which the very humane president, Count Stroganow, is earnestly endeavouring to obtain.

The National Institute of France, held on the 2d October last, a Public Sitting for the distribution of prizes of the class of the Fine Arts, which was opened with a speech of Citizen *Le Breton*, giving an account of the labours of that class, prefaced by general observations on the history of the fine arts in France.

Denon read a discourse on the treasures acquired in the course of the year, by the Museums of the Arts, of which we shall give a rapid sketch in one of our next Numbers.

Dufourny, made a report on the principal prizes in the department of painting, sculpture, and architecture, for the year 11.

The subject proposed for the prize of painting was—"*Enaas carrying off his father, Anchises, on his shoulders, to save him from the conflagration of Troy.*" The first prize was adjudged to Citizen *Marie Joseph Blondel*, of Paris, pupil of Citizen Renaud, and the second prize to Citizen *Georges Rouget*, of Paris, pupil of Citizen David. The subject of the prize of sculpture, was "*Ulysses owned by his Nurse.*" The first prize was adjudged to Citizen *Edme Gaulo* of Langres, pupil of Citizen Moitie, of Citizens La Barre, and Lagardette, and afterwards of Citizens Le Grand and Molinos, and the second to *Charles Marie Laitie*, of Paris, pupil of Dejoux.

The subject of the prize of architecture was "*a Monument to the glory of the First Consul, intended to adorn a part, which is destined to receive several navigable Canals.*" The first prize was adjudged to Citizen François *Pagot* of Orleans, and the second to *André Marie Chatillon*, pupil of Citizens Percier and Fantin.

Citizen *Conté* has communicated to the Society for the encouragement of national industry the new process to prevent the effects of rust and the oxidation of metals which he considers as far more practicable and simple, than any other method as yet discovered. "Take some of that varnish which the French call *Vernis gras a l'huile* of which the basis is gum copal; the whitest that can be found is the most proper. Let the essence of turpentine well rectified be mixed with this in the proportions of from one-half to four-fifths, according to the degree in which it is intended that the pieces to be preserved should retain their metallic brilliancy. The metal is in the first place to be wiped with a piece of cloth or leather strongly impregnated with *alkali*, then washed in pure water, and afterwards rubbed dry with a linen cloth. Take a bit of fine spunge, let it be first washed in water, and afterwards in essence of turpentine, to extract the water. Put a little of the above varnish in a vessel, and then place the spunge in the midst of it till the whole is imbibed. Let the spunge be squeezed between the fingers till it has discharged very nearly all the varnish contained in it. Let it then be passed lightly over the barrel of a gun, or any other piece of metal, taking care not to repeat this when the essence has evaporated, which would render the varnish rough and of an unequal tint. Let the metal then be dried in a place secure from dust." Citizen Conté observes, that he has employed this process with success, and that experience has proved that pieces thus varnished, under every circumstance, preserve their metallic brilliancy without the slightest touch of rust.

About six months ago Doctor *Valli* of Mantua, proceeded to Constantinople for the purpose of ascertaining the true nature of the plague, and making experiments with that view on his own body. In the month of October, his intimate friend *Solferini*, received from him the following letter, dated Pera, the 20th September:—"It is now 40 days since I was attacked by the plague. I am still obliged to keep my bed, on account of a severe complaint in my left leg, which the malady has left behind, and I know not, whether I shall ever be able to use it again. Now and then time hangs very heavy upon me, yet I shall never regret the moment, when with enthusiasm I adopted the resolution to bridle and curb one of the most dreadful diseases. I am pleased with the idea of being in the country of the plague, and only lament that I am at present prevented from approaching it nearer. Should my recovery be too long protracted, I shall know how to procure relief. We may still be physicians with wooden legs, and besides one is already no better than lost to me."

ERRATUM.—P. 41, l. 47, for "the curvature of the terrestrial meridian," read "the *radius of* the curvature of the terrestrial meridian."

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

An Historical Review of the State of Ireland, from the Invasion of that Country under Henry II. to its Union with Great-Britain on the 1st of Jan. 1801. *By* Francis Plowden, *Esq.* 3 *vols.* 4*to. London,* 1803. *Egerton.*

(Continued from our last.)

WHEN George the Third ascended the throne of Great Britain and Ireland, the improvement and advantages of the latter country were very far behind those of the former. From the unwieldy and confused mass of materials collected in this book it is not easy for any one unaccustomed to the selection and assortment of disordered particulars to obtain a very distinct idea of the situation of Ireland at the commencement of this reign. It is the object of the author, however, to draw a strong picture of the unnecessary and impolitic hardships under which she was placed by Great Britain; and we think it will assist the reader's conception, if we present a sort of classification of these grievances.

1. We shall place first the laws against the Catholics. Four-fifths of the inhabitants of Ireland were of this description; and nothing could be more severe than the tenor of the laws respecting them. The exercise of their religion was in fact prohibited. The opening of mass-houses was illegal; and the celebration of mass subject to great penalties. The very laws of property were suspended in oppression of the Catholics. Heritable property they were held incapable of possessing, or of lending money on any but personal security. They could not become jurymen even on the trials of one another. Thus their lives and properties were placed altogether at the mercy of the protestants; and in all disputes with protestants were generally treated with very little regard to justice. They were excluded from every office, even the smallest of trust or profit. They were excluded from any vote at an election; from being freemen of any corporation, and from any privilege in a town corporate, by which they were in a great measure debarred from trade. And they were expressly excluded from any part of the profession of the law, that of barrister, attorney, solicitor, &c. It is not denied that the meliorated temper of the times had softened the exercise of these laws. But they still held the Catholics in a state of humiliation, of the greatest poverty, and extreme discontent.

In judging of the situation of Ireland, it is never to be lost sight of, that the circumstances in which the two classes of inhabitants had been so long placed had naturally kept alive the most violent passions; and that it had thus become the habit of the people to enter into all public contentions with a degree of vehemence almost unexampled in any other country.

2. But England had not only given extraordinary privileges to her own sons in Ireland over the original inhabitants; she endeavoured to retain extraordinary privileges to herself over the whole island. One of the most remarkable of these was the power of making and altering the laws of Ireland. This power had never been recognized by the Irish, though it had been frequently exercised by England; and was at last openly claimed, by an act declaring, "That the King's Majesty, by and with the consent of the Lords spiritual and temporal, and the Commons of Great Britain in parliament assembled, had, hath, and of right ought to have full power and authority to make statutes of sufficient force and validity to bind the people of the kingdom of Ireland." This act was defended by the English lawyers on the right of conquest, which would justify every act of oppression to which the interest or mistake of England might prompt her, and justly alarmed the Irish. To this claim was joined another, that of controuling the Irish courts of justice, and of setting aside their decisions by the house of lords in England. This the Irish considered as another instance of insult and degradation; and as a contrivance for placing at the mercy of the government of England the life and fortune of every Irishman, who in opposition to England should strive to obtain any advantage to his country.

3. The most invidious measures were taken to curb the industry and prosperity of Ireland, in order to favour that of England. Ireland was as much debarred from trading with the British colonies, as if she had been a foreign country. She was allowed to export to these distant settlements no produce of any manufacture, and no goods, except victuals, of which from their bulk, and perishable nature, very little could ever be sent. She was allowed to import nothing from them whatever, and could receive no colonial produce but from Great Britain. Not to interfere with the woollen trade of Great Britain, she was prohibited from exporting wool, or woollen cloth; and even on the trade which she carried on directly with Great Britain such regulations were imposed as tended to throw the greatest balance on the side of Great Britain; every discouragement being laid on the trade of Ireland, and every encouragement given to that of England.

4. Another thing by which Ireland conceived herself to be distinguished from England greatly to her disadvantage and disgrace, was the constitution of her parliament. According to the early constitution of parliament, both in England and Ireland, that assembly continued during the King's life, unless dissolved at his pleasure. The scope which this afforded to the indirect influence of the crown had in England procured an act for the limited duration of parliaments as early as the reign of William and Mary. But no such

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reform had as yet taken place in Ireland; and parliaments lasted during the life of the king.

It was impossible to prevent the example of the British constitution, and the general advancement of commerce and the arts, from communicating to Ireland a portion of that free spirit which formed the glory and the blessing of her sister island. A distinct idea now began to be formed of the real grievances which were necessary to be removed. A number of active and ambitious men arose, and whether entirely actuated by patriotism, or partly by this, and partly by less generous motives, brought the points directly before the public; the minds of the people were in a state to be powerfully affected by their representations; and the demand for an alteration of the ancient state of things became irresistible.

Before, however, any movement on account of these great political objects took place, certain disturbances, and tumults, altogether owing to local circumstances, arose among the peasantry in the south, disorders, which came at last to a considerable height; and as this is the first of those insurrections, which became at last so formidable, its origin deserves considerable attention. The Irish peasantry, in the Catholic counties, had always subsisted in a state of abject poverty and wretchedness. Whether changes introduced by the landholders in the modes of managing their estates rendered that misery more intolerable, or whether changes of a different description in the minds of the people rendered them more impatient under their sufferings, we have not time to consider, or whether something was not owing to both causes; it is however certain that symptoms of discontent, and some removal from that temper of tame endurance which had been seen hitherto, became pretty general. A particular circumstance was the cause of this spirit manifesting itself in a remarkable manner in the year 1762. In the first stage of agriculture, the riches or rather the subsistence of the peasants is in a great measure derived from their cattle. An epidemical disease among the cattle, which extended over the greater part of Europe, had made great havoc in Ireland, and produced the utmost distress. The ignorant and misguided sufferers broke out in insurrection, and committed certain outrages, digging up cultivated ground, levelling inclosures, seizing arms and horses, and boughing the cattle.

There seems to be a certain intermediate stage of society, after men have removed from the simple state of nature, and before they have acquired the habits and employments of civilized life, at which they seem peculiarly prone to this species of insurrection. In England we find discontents and disorders of the peasantry, on grounds perfectly similar, to have prevailed during the reigns of Henry the Seventh, and Henry the Eighth, and various statutes enacted on that account. In the reign of Edward the Sixth, the people broke out into insurrections so violent, as to be denominated rebellion, and committed the very same kind of outrages with those to which we refer in Ireland, demolishing in many counties the greatest part of the inclosures, and perpetrating other outrages.

The first of the tumults in Ireland were confined to the peasantry in the south. They committed their outrages in the night, and from their demolishing inclosures, were first called *levellers*, but afterwards, from appearing with a white frock or shirt on the outside of their dress to distinguish them, they received the title of *White-boys*. And this is the origin of that name, under which so many enormities have been committed.

The first steps taken in consequence of these riots, Mr. Plowden approves of. Afterwards attempts were made, and but too successfully, to associate these lawless proceedings with the Catholic question, and to make them a pretext for exercising severities and cruelties against many of that persuasion, as well as for hardening the minds of protestants in general against any relaxation of the penal laws, although religion was in no respect whatever connected with these proceedings.

Disturbances of a similar nature, but from different causes, arose about the same time in the North. The highways were at that time repaired by the labour of the house-keepers. It very often happened, as the people imagined, that their labour was wasted on a bye-road, useful to nobody but the great man in the neighbourhood, while the public roads were left in a state impassable. They assembled in mobs to testify their purpose of opposition, and from the oaken branches which they wore in their hats, were denominated *Oak-boys*. They did not stop at pretending to regulate the repairing of roads; they proceeded to tythes, which they proposed to curtail; and to the rents of the landlords which they undertook to settle. The *Steel-boys* arose on account of a practice adopted by certain landholders of letting their grounds to large undertakers or middle men, who parcelled them out afterwards to the people at rack rents, and under other disagreeable circumstances. The persons of this denomination too became general reformers. It is to be observed that the Oak and Steel-boys were confined to the North, where the inhabitants are almost all protestants; while the insurrections of the White-boys were in the South.

It is impossible, when we observe the facility with which in so many instances these commotions were raised, and the height to which they were allowed to proceed before any resistance almost was applied, not to be struck with a reflection on the defective state of the internal police of Ireland. It is accordingly known to be at this moment greatly imperfect. The establishment is neither sufficiently strong, sufficiently active, sufficiently intelligent, nor sufficiently incorrupt, and stands in the greatest need of reformation.

Shortly after the accession of his Majesty, efforts began to be made to obtain a restriction of the duration of parliaments, similar to that established in England. They were vigorously opposed. Dr. Lucas was the great champion for this cause; and several times his attempts had failed. Even after a bill for this purpose had passed in Ireland, it was not returned by the Privy Council in England. The steady, and general demand for this important reform at last could not be resisted, and a bill was returned, altering the time prescribed in the bill transmitted from Ire-

land from seven to eight years. The Irish were satisfied; and testified the utmost joy and gratitude. This was the first successful attempt of the Irish to obtain an important amelioration of their government. The circumstances attending the struggle well deserve attention, and are very fully collected by Mr. Plowden.

The improved independence of the Irish parliament was soon visible in their acts. Several attempts had been made by England, to usurp, among other things, the important privilege of taxing Ireland. In 1769, a money bill was sent over by the Privy Council to Ireland. On a division in the House of Commons it was rejected, because it did not take its rise in that house. This exertion of a right which a man in England would have been held guilty of treason against the constitution, if he had condemned with regard to the English House of Commons, was talked of with the utmost indignation here by that great majority who generally receive their language from the ministerial party. The language put by Mr. Woodfall into the Public Advertiser on this subject, on the 9th of December 1769, naturally suggests some good reflections:—"Hibernian patriotism is a transcript of that filthy idol worshipped at the London Tavern; insolence assumed from an opinion of impunity, usurps the place which boldness against real injuries ought to hold. The refusal of the late bill, because it was not brought in contrary to the practice of ages, in violation of the constitution, and to the certain ruin of the dependence of Ireland upon Great Britain, is a behaviour more suiting an army of White Boys, than the grave representatives of a nation. This is the most daring insult that has been offered to government. It must be counteracted with firmness, or else the state is ruined. Let the refractory house be dissolved; should the next copy their example, let it also be dissolved; and if the same spirit of seditious obstinacy should continue, I know no remedy but one, and it is extremely obvious: The parliament of Great Britain is supreme over its conquests, as well as colonies, and the service of the nation must not be left undone, on account of the factious obstinacy of a provincial assembly. Let our legislature, for they have an undoubted right, vote the Irish supplies; and so save a nation, that their own obstinate representatives endeavour to ruin."

Certain contests and struggles, not very interesting, between the usual parties in parliament, form the subject of the history for several years subsequent to this transaction, and are related with sufficient prolixity by the author.

The American war was productive of important effects to Great Britain, and indeed to all Europe; but most immediately and remarkably to Ireland. It was impossible for the people either in Ireland or in Britain not to trace an analogy between the disputes with America, and those with Ireland. The example too of a people taking up arms in vindication of rights which they conceived to belong to them, and successfully maintaining the contest, strengthened and propagated the spirit of freedom. When the difficulties too of the British government became great, by the continuance and bad success of that contest, they assumed a lower tone, with regard to similar demands, on the part of persons nearer home, and shewed a disposition to gratify the Irish in some of their favourite wishes.

The English House of Commons being in a committee on the 7th of April, 1778, to take into consideration the acts of parliament relating to the Irish trade, Mr. T. Townsend said, that though as stedfast a Protestant as any gentleman in the House, he should be glad to see some means adopted to grant such indulgences to the Roman Catholics of Ireland, as might attach that great body of men to the present government: their affections had been alienated; he wished to recall them by indulgent behaviour. The minister (Lord North) declared, he would with all his heart concur in any measure that could tend to answer so desirable an end. The penal laws of Ireland were the consequence of apprehension, which, however groundless, always adopts the most cruel and severe policy. The Irish complained, and complained with justice; but it must be left to the candour of their own parliament to grant such indulgence to the Roman Catholics as their loyalty deserved: he requested that the House would agree to that which was in their province; to relax the trade laws would benefit the Irish, and ultimately enrich ourselves; embarked in the same cause with us, they cannot be called our rivals in trade, but their rivals were our rivals." Although there was then and is now in England far from that degree of liberality with regard to religion, which is greatly to be wished, the people of England can hardly form a notion of the bigotry, and desperate animosity which fills the breasts of a great part of the Protestants in Ireland against the Catholics even at this moment. A bill, brought into the Irish parliament for the relief of the Roman Catholics, which scarcely relaxed any of the laws against them, but that respecting the right of hereditary property, passed with great difficulty, notwithstanding the declared approbation of government.

The extreme impolicy, as well as injustice of the laws for checking, and keeping down the trade of Ireland, was now pretty generally understood by all enlightened men in England; and the parliament entered seriously into the design of altering them. A long detail is given by Plowden of the interesting proceedings in parliament on this occasion. One particular we shall mention. The table was covered with petitions against any extension of commercial advantages to Ireland, by which the trade of Great Britain should be in any manner affected. "So violent indeed," says the author, "were the towns of Liverpool, Manchester, and Glasgow, that they menaced to be no longer loyal, if these bills should pass." The mercantile spirit of monopoly has often disgraced itself, and has been, and is, of extreme prejudice to this country.

While this business was managing, an event of a very extraordinary nature happened in Ireland. Urged by the severe exigencies of the American war, the ministers had sent a great part of the troops on the Irish establishment to America. The revenue of Ireland had fallen short of the expenditure. An

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invasion of the island by France was threatened. The idea arose among the people of associating to defend themselves, since they were left unprotected by the government. Pressed by the emergency, the ministers very readily allowed them; and a great quantity of arms was distributed. The spirit of volunteering became general, and was prosecuted with all that ardour which distinguishes the Irish character. The number of volunteers amounted to forty-two thousand. They were left entirely without any regulation. Their officers did not even bear the king's commission. The king did not accept of the services of the corps, or companies, or regiments. They formed themselves into bodies, exactly as they pleased. They appointed reviews of themselves, and nominated the persons who should review them.

In the mean time a spirit of extreme discontent and disaffection pervaded the whole Irish nation. The delays which had taken place in the gratification of their expectations with regard to the freedom of trade, and the disordered state of the finances of Ireland, gave room to the loudest complaints. The Irish parliament adopted a very strong measure to force the government to grant the favour demanded; they voted the supplies only for six months. And after this appearance of compulsion, bills to grant the privileges demanded were brought in and passed the legislature of England. Thus was another great measure atchieved, the freedom of trade.

The claim of England to legislate for Ireland, was the next particular which they demanded to have redressed. And the voice of the volunteers served greatly to animate and strengthen the general spirit. They now, says Plowden, openly declared their opinions upon the state of public affairs; and the newspapers teemed with resolutions of the different corps, all in unison declaring, that Ireland was an independent kingdom, and fully entitled to all the uncontrouled rights, privileges, and immunities of a free constitution: that no power on earth, but the king, lords and commons of Ireland could make laws to bind them: and that they were ready with their lives and fortunes to resist the usurpations and encroachments of any foreign legislature. Such were at this period (1780) the universal sentiments of the Irish people.

In this situation of the country a measure leading directly and plainly to despotism was not only proposed, but, strange to tell, actually carried into a law. One of the strongest checks imposed upon the power of the king by the revolution settlement in England, was that of passing the mutiny bill only for a year. It had been hitherto passed in the same manner in Ireland. Now it was returned from the privy-council with a most extraordinary alteration; that of being made *perpetual*. This strange transaction did not pass unnoticed in the British parliament. The proceedings there to which it gave occasion, and the effect it had in strengthening the ferment in Ireland, are fully detailed.

The right to independent legislation, the extension of greater privileges to the catholics, and the alteration of the mutiny act, were violently and repeatedly contended for during a length of time in the Irish parliament. These subjects engaged the attention of the people out of parliament, and held their minds in a state of extreme agitation. In the call for reformation the voice of the volunteers was particularly distinguished. They formed at last the plan of a congress of delegates from the different corps, and of acting in concert. Resolutions were published by these meetings, declaring what they wanted, and their determination to employ effectual means to obtain it.

Lord North's administration was now changed for that of the Marquis of Rockingham, whose party had always supported the pretensions of Ireland, and who now readily assisted in confirming them. Plowden concludes his first volume with an account of the circumstances attending this great revolution in the situation of Ireland, when her independence was formally acknowledged, and her laws in almost every respect assimilated to those of Great Britain.

In the long train of circumstances from the beginning of the reign to this period, it has been our object to select the great and leading particulars, and point them out to the attention of those who may choose to peruse this history. They will probably find this labour of ours afford them considerable assistance in arranging the strange and disorderly mass presented to their bewildered senses. There is indeed a vast collection of important information in the book, for which we give Mr. Plowden our thanks. But if ever a performance deserved the appellation of crude and indigested, this is fairly entitled to that distinction; and it has cost us no little pains and labour, to frame out of it an orderly, and distinct idea to ourselves of the events which it was his business to record.

The debates in the English parliament on the bill for granting independence to the Irish courts of judicature, however much connected with the preceding subjects, are placed in the second volume. This right too was fully confirmed. "And it must be allowed," says the author, "that under the variety of changes which the British ministry experienced at this critical period, they all centered in one accord, to give ease, satisfaction, and perfect constitutional liberty to Ireland."

The space which intervened between this period, and the time when the French revolution began to influence the minds of the people in this country and Ireland, is all that we intend further to include in this number of our work. It is a period deserving deep attention, because it tends to throw the greatest light on the period which succeeded, and which has been so full of melancholy events. The reader of Plowden's work will find a large collection of materials in a very crude state, from which with labour, and a clear head, he may obtain a pretty distinct view of the events and circumstances of that time. Some supplementary inquiries however, and respecting points of rather more than secondary importance, are necessary to complete the view; but it is true that we in general can discover from Mr. Plowden where satisfaction respecting these points is to be obtained.

The ferment of political discussion, the interest excited by political regulations and opinions, was excessive, at the time these important changes in the

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political situation of Ireland were effected; and this agitation of mind was spread through all ranks of the people, and to the remotest corner of the island. In this situation new subjects of contention quickly presented themselves.

A little before this period an unusual commotion was excited in the minds of the people of Britain respecting projects of political changes, by Mr. Pitt, the Duke of Richmond, and other distinguished characters, by their speeches and proceedings on the subject of parliamentary reform. The spirit excited by these means in Britain was soon carried across the channel; and as the Irish had just brought the subject of their own complaints to a satisfactory issue, they were ready to enter into those which were common to them with the sister country.

Undoubtedly, if any just cause existed in England for complaint, on the subject of the representation in parliament, much stronger existed in Ireland. If unconstitutional influence disposed of seats in the one country, it disposed of a far greater proportion in the other. In fact a great part of all the representatives of the commons in Ireland was nominated by a number of persons smaller than itself. So that in fact, though not in name, the electors of a great part of that country were fewer than the representatives. The ministerial majority in parliament, which carried every thing with so much ease in favour of the court, notwithstanding the opposition of a great many of the most popular characters, and powerful families in the country, had enflamed the spirit of dissatisfaction; and the question of parliamentary reform, keenly supported in England, by the leading political characters, was taken up with great eagerness by the patriots in Ireland. Plans were proposed, and resolutions published by the volunteers. The strongest and most persevering efforts were made in parliament, to carry some motions in favour of the measure, and the passionate and vehement speeches which were made on the subject, were disseminated through the country, read with intense avidity, and served to agitate more violently the spirits of the people. They assembled in every part of the kingdom to frame and sign petitions to parliament. The mob of Dublin broke out into riots on the failure of a motion on the subject. The sheriffs, and chief magistrates were called upon to convene the inhabitants of their respective counties to discuss the subject; and a meeting was held in Dublin at which the sheriffs presided, and by which very strong resolutions were adopted and published. An address to the inhabitants of Ireland on the same subject was published soon after by their committee. Different meetings of the same kind, were held in other parts of the country. But government forcibly interfered; prosecutions were instituted; and the high sheriff of the county of Dublin was sentenced to fine and imprisonment by the court of King's Bench. Violent animosities prevailed; and the calling of a national congress was a general subject of conversation. Strong measures were adopted by the ministers to prevent it. The meeting of the city of Dublin for choosing delegates was opposed by the Attorney-General, who threatened the sheriffs. The magistrates who held similar meetings in other places, and the printers of the newspapers, in which their resolutions were published, were prosecuted. The congress met, but nothing of importance happened.

In the midst of this contention the disordered state of the finances of Ireland, the disbursements of the treasury every year exceeding the receipts, gave occasion to numerous motions by the leaders of opposition in parliament, and to severe strictures on the conduct of the government. The abuses of the civil list were a fertile subject of accusation, which contributed to excite the hatred and contempt of the people towards government.

Against so many causes of exasperation the ministers seem to have wished to provide some cause of conciliation. Overtures were made for reducing to some degree of equality the commercial intercourse of the two islands. The trade of Ireland to the colonies and to foreign countries had already been settled; but none of the restrictions on the direct trade with Britain had yet been taken off; and it had been proposed in Ireland to impose countervailing restrictions on the importation of British commodities into Ireland. Serious difficulties were found connected with this matter, and the propositions at last agreed upon by the minister, pleased neither the opposition party in England, nor the people in Ireland, and the measure for the time was dropped.

The facility with which, during this period of fermentation, the volunteer system crumbled away of its own accord is remarkable. A slight discordance arose respecting the admission of catholics to the elective franchise; and from that time little more is heard of the volunteers.

Similar disturbances to those we have already noticed, had arisen again among the peasantry in the south, assembling under the title of White-boys. Without doing great mischief, they had been suppressed by the efforts of Dr. Troy, the Roman Catholic bishop of Ossory. Other disturbances had appeared in the neighbourhood of Cloyne, in the county of Cork. On account of this state of the country a bill for a new system of police was introduced by the ministers into parliament, and gave occasion to some very interesting discussion. A remarkable passage of a speech of the Attorney-General (the late lord Clare) on this occasion, respecting the miseries of the poor, a subject on which *he* will not be suspected of exaggeration, we will quote:

"He was well acquainted with the province of Munster, and that it was impossible for human wretchedness to exceed that of the miserable peasantry. He knew that the unhappy tenantry were ground to powder by relentless landlords. He knew that far from being able to give the clergy their just dues, (alluding to the complaints of the insurgents against tythes) they had not food or raiment for themselves; the landlord grasped the whole, and sorry was he to add that not satisfied with the present extortions, some landlords had been so base as to instigate the insurgents to rob the clergy of their tythes, not in order to alleviate the distresses of the tenantry, but that they might add the clergy's share to the cruel rack rents already paid. It would require the utmost ability of parliament to come to the root of these

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evils. The poor people of Munster lived in a more abject state of poverty than human nature could be supposed able to bear; their miseries were intolerable. But the legislature could not stand by, and see them take the redress into their own hands."

Some strong circumstances respecting the wretched manner in which the police was managed are disclosed in this discussion, and fully prove an opinion which we have long held, that it is to this abominable management that a great part of the late mischief is to be attributed. "One circumstance," the Attorney General said, "which had contributed to spread the commotions was *the insufficiency*, and *criminal* neglect of magistrates; that if they had done their duty the *commotions would not have existed for a month.*" Mr. Curran said, "that the supineness of the magistrates and the low state of the commissions of the peace throughout the kingdom ought to be rectified. A system of vile jobbing was one of the misfortunes of that country; it extended even to commissions of the peace. How else could the report of the four and twenty commissions of the peace, sent down to the county of Clare in one post be accounted for? Even the appointment of sheriffs was notoriously in the hands of government; and through jobbing, sheriffs themselves could not be trusted: two sheriffs ran away last year with executions in their pockets, and the late high sheriff of the county of Dublin had absconded."

With respect to this bill, the patriots contended that the laws in existence were perfectly sufficient for maintaining the peace of the country, wanting only to be executed as they ought; and that the bill introduced by the ministers was unconstitutional, and detrimental to the liberties of the people. Mr. Plowden gives a full account of the debates, but no account of the leading provisions of the bill.

The oppression sustained by the people from the exaction of tythes was brought forward by Mr. Grattan, and occasioned several animated debates. Tumultuous rencounters, and even battles between the protestants and catholics in the county of Armagh, under the titles of Peep-of-day-boys, and Defenders, now began to attract attention.

At this time the important question of the regency occurred. A very full account is given by Mr. Plowden of the parliamentary proceedings both in England and Ireland. The different, and somewhat alarming result of these proceedings is well known. While the parliament of England voted the Prince of Wales regent with very limited powers, that of Ireland voted him regent with unlimited powers.

From this time to the period when the ideas suggested by the French revolution began to mingle with the old sentiments of the Irish, nothing of great importance occurs. The history of the rebellion properly commences from this period; and that together with the history of the Union, we intend to reserve for the last part of our review. The importance of the subject, and the real value of the documents collected in this work, have appeared to us to deserve the pains we have taken to elucidate the train of events. And we trust our readers will find compensation for the space occupied by this performance in our Journal.

(To be concluded in our next.) M.

The History of the Reign of George III. to the Termination of the late War. To which is prefixed a View of the progressive Improvement of England, in Prosperity and Strength, to the Accession of His Majesty. By Robert Bissett, *LL. D. Author of the "Life of Burke," &c. &c.* 6 *vols.* 8vo. *Longman and Rees.*

When Sir Walter Raleigh had compleated the second volume of his *Universal History*, while he was a prisoner in the Tower of London, a riot and murder took place just under his window, of every circumstance of which he was an eye-witness; immediately afterwards a friend came to see him on whose veracity and accuracy of observation he could depend, and who was also an eye-witness in the street of what had passed, who gave an account of it very different from what he himself had observed, on which he said, 'if this is the case with what passes in our sight, what an accumulation of lies have I been arranging here!' and immediately threw the book into the fire.

It may seem paradoxical to say that probably more falsehoods and misrepresentations were contained in the volume he burned, than in the volume he had published; but it does appear that the nearer events are to his own time, the less accurately has the Historian been able to relate them; and if the history of very remote times is incorrect from a want of documents, the history of our own times is equally so from a superabundance of them, with the disadvantage of these documents being often contradictory and always selected with partiality. Indeed the objects of history seem something analogous with those of vision; when too remote their boundaries are undefined and much is left to be supplied by the imagination; when brought too near, particular parts press so closely on our observation, that we are not able to take a comprehensive view of the whole.

How far this remark affects the work before us will be seen as we proceed in our review of it. Our first attention will be directed to the introduction, which comprehends, though in a short space, a summary, but by no means imperfect, view of the progressive improvement of this country, from the earliest accounts of it to the commencement of the seven years war, during which his present Majesty ascended the throne.

The annals of this country, till the foundation of the monarchy by Egbert, affording little room for the remarks of the historian, are but slightly noticed; but Dr. Bisset draws with a masterly hand the outline of the advantages which our navigation, and, in consequence, our commerce, derived, even under the earlier Saxon kings, from the necessity of meeting and repelling the predatory incursions of the Danes, and afterwards from the communication opened with the Continent by the accession of William the First; as well as the advantages which our constitution gained, (and which it still retains) from the amalgamation of the feudal system introduced by the Norman Princes, with the general spirit of liberty which pervaded every part of the Saxon government, which was not quite extinguished under William and his Sons; and was again revived on the re-accession of the Saxon dynasty in the person of Henry II.

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In taking a view of our history from this period to the reign of Elizabeth, Dr. Bisset has shewn more clearly than many much more diffusive writers, the advantages our commerce both external and internal derived from the necessity, imposed on us by our insular situation, of turning our attention to maritime affairs, and from the diffusion of wealth among all the orders of society, both from our foreign and our domestic wars; for while by the latter, that race of opulent and turbulent nobles who at the same time oppressed the people, and insulted the prince, was either destroyed or greatly depressed, the expence incurred by the king and the nobility from the permanent armies which were necessary to carry on the former, obliged the king to have recourse to other means of supply than could be furnished by the feudal tenures, while the great feudal tenants were obliged to alienate part of their possessions to furnish their proportion of that extraordinary supply, as well as to enable them to perform the necessary personal service to which they were equally impelled by the feudal system, and the warlike spirit arising from it; and the expence of which was greatly increased by the length to which a campaign in a comparatively distant country must be protracted.

The following character of the reign of Elizabeth, is too excellent to be abridged:—

"In her government, Elizabeth, like all the princes of the house of Tudor, was extremely absolute. A spirit of liberty, however, had begun to rise, which, though fostered by the wise and beneficial conduct of Elizabeth, was certainly not intended by her to be cherished. The industry and enterprise which she encouraged and promoted, diffused property among the commons; that property nourished independence, and joined with advancing reason and knowledge in disseminating a spirit of freedom. The government, however, of the queen, though imperious, yet generally lenient, did not irritate this new spirit by particular acts of oppression, tyranny, or cruelty. Her conduct, steadily and wisely directed to the interests of her people, rendered her extremely popular. Her manners, engaging and insinuating, increased the attachment of her people. From her character and situation, the greater number of her subjects considered her welfare as identified with their own. The most strenuous votaries of liberty were the most inimical to popery, against the approaches of which they considered Elizabeth as the strongest bulwark. From attachment to a sovereign in whom they experienced so many excellencies, and also from awe of so very resolute and intrepid a character, they yielded a submission to the authority of Elizabeth, which they by no means thought due to the mandates of kingly power.

"The literature which Elizabeth encouraged, tended also to promote the spirit of freedom. The writers of Greece and Rome, inculcating so strongly and impressively the principles and sentiments of liberty, were now very generally read among the higher and middling ranks. Genius, no longer fettered by priestly enactments, soared aloft; and though not immediately directed to political discussion, yet by enlightening and invigorating men's minds, prepared them for just notions respecting their rights, and bold and manly conduct in asserting their liberties. The reign of Elizabeth, though, like her father's, manifestly arbitrary, has in its ultimate tendency and effects, proved favourable to freedom. Thus, in the various constituents of internal prosperity and happiness, and in estimation and importance among foreign powers, England never made such advances as under the very long but much more glorious reign of Elizabeth. Considered as a rational being, placed in authority and entrusted with the government of mankind, examined according to the circumstances of her situation, the duties required, her discharge of those duties, and the result in the condition in which she FOUND AND LEFT her subjects, (the true criterion of a ruler's ability or weakness as a SOVEREIGN,*) no prince that ever filled a throne surpassed Elizabeth."

This is the criterion by which the actions of princes are to be tried at the bar of history, and every reader, animated with sincere regard for the honour and interest of his country, should turn with disgust from those pages, which enervating the manly character of the historian, with the affected sensibility of the novel-writer, pass over the splendid abilities and virtues of the Queen, to dwell on the foibles of the woman, and bring forth with malignity and exaggeration, one act, which whatever was its cause, its probable consequence was the saving this country and its religion from another female reign of persecution.

From the reign of Elizabeth to the revolution, the progress of our commerce and our constitution is traced with the same precision; but this being more obvious to general observation, affords less opportunity for novelty of investigation. From that period, or rather from the death of king William to the accession of the present King, where the enlarged history commences, and which concludes this introductory epitome, the strong effects of the prevalence of what is commonly called the Whig party, and the system of funding are accurately and boldly delineated, as well as the increase of ministerial influence, from the elevation of the House of Hanover. The latter we give in the historian's own words:—

"It is certain, that ministerial influence in this reign, whether from the long continuance of parliament, or other causes, became much greater than at any former time. Corruption had been carried to a considerable length by the whigs, in the time of Queen Anne, on particular occasions: but it was reserved for Walpole to establish it as a methodical and regular engine of government; and to bribe in a dextrous and circuitous manner, which might not only escape detection, but in some degree even impose on the receiver, and which might make him suppose that to be the reward of merit from his country, which was really the wages of service to a minister. Closely connected with stock-jobbers, and other adventurers, in projects for the acquisition of money, Walpole found, through loans and similar government transactions, various opportunities of bestowing indirect donatives. Nor was he sparing in direct presents. He appears to have been the first minister who thoroughly understood the mode of managing parliaments, and making law-givers willing tools in the hands of the court. He first completely succeeded in identifying, according to the apprehension of the majority, compliance with ministers, and patriotism; opposition to ministers, and disaffection to the constitution. George's reign is an epoch in parliamentary history, as, since that time, whether ministers have been able or weak, wise or foolish, they have rarely failed to have the co-operation of parliament in their projects, whether useful or hurtful. The influence of the crown was established on the most solid basis by the whig party, and the whig leader, Sir Robert Walpole."

* This is the light in which the expanded mind of Hume considers our illustrious queen; disregarding such foibles, as though they might mark a part of her character, did not interfere with her administration of affairs, powerful, constant, and successful promotion of the public good.

There is however one circumstance which attended the accession of the House of Hanover, which seems to have escaped the particular notice of all our historians and political writers, but which is of all others the most essential to be strongly noticed in an abridgement of our general constitutional history, written professedly as an introduction to the particular history of the present reign, as the turbulence of popular faction which disturbed so violently and so dangerously the early part of it, was chiefly, if not solely derived from it.

The circumstance we allude to is so striking, the effect of it on the actual form of our constitution so obvious, that it seems wonderful it should have escaped the marked notice of those who have written on the laws, the government, or the revolutions of Britain; since it is nothing less than the suspension of the kingly office for nearly half a century. This however must be imputed to the extreme difficulty of investigating so very delicate a subject by a contemporary writer; an additional proof of the disadvantages that must attend the historian of his own times.

We by no means intend to enter into this investigation ourselves; it is still farther from our intention to cast the smallest reflection on the two first Princes of the House of Hanover, who "bore their faculties so meekly" as to be entitled to the grateful remembrance of their subjects; but being totally unacquainted with the character and manners of the people they governed; having no partialities, no friendships, no means of acquiring good or bad opinions of any of their subjects, no human wisdom could enable them to do otherwise than they did, to place their sole confidence in that party which was chiefly instrumental in placing them on the throne; and it became the business of that party to persuade them that every person either in or out of parliament who opposed their measures, was an enemy to the monarch, and an adherent to the exiled family.

The power of parliament however, and especially that of the House of Commons, was fully efficient, and as the existence of a minister entirely depended on having a majority there, no means were unemployed to gain that majority, while that maxim of our constitution which to ensure the inviolability of the person of our sovereign, declares he can do no wrong, laying, by that means, all criminal responsibility on his ministers, was construed into placing him in the absolute state of an infant who could have no power or opinion of his own, and it was thence inferred, that any interference of the King in the choice of his ministers was unconstitutional.

How strongly this opinion was rooted in the minds of men at the beginning of the present reign, is obvious from the celebrated declaration of Mr. Pitt when he resigned, that he would not be responsible for measures which he was not permitted to *guide*. Of Mr. Pitt's transcendant abilities as a minister, there can be but one opinion, we may say of him in the words of the poet:—

"Nil ortum tale, nil oriturum."

but such a declaration was openly reducing the King to a cypher, it was applying to him the words of Mustapha in Dryden's Tempest, "You may be king, but I will be viceroy over you." Even the late Lord Orford, bred up in the school, nay in the bosom of this self-named whigism, objected to this expression, as is mentioned in a note on the second chapter of the History which we shall cite here, though it does not properly come under this part of our Review. "A little word escaped Mr. Pitt, which never entered into his former declarations; nay nor into Cromwell's, nor Hugh Capet's, nor Julius Cæsar's, nor any reformer's of ancient or modern times; he has happened to say he will *guide*." And yet by all the whig party of that time the language was contended for as constitutional.

The full consequences of what we have just hinted must be left to the consideration of the future historian; but no writer can faithfully detail or fairly account for several of the most considerable political events and opinions during great part of the present reign, without bearing it in his mind. We shall here conclude our account of the Introduction in which we have been much more diffuse in proportion to its bulk, than we can be on the work itself; of that, however, we shall neither present a slight nor a desultory view, but give it all the attention that it merits both from the weight of the subject and the manner in which it is executed. E.

(*To be continued.*)

The History and Antiquities of Pleshy, in the County of Essex, 4to. pp. 327. Nichols and Son.

When we announce that this work is from the pen of Mr. Gough, we offer our readers a pledge for its accuracy and fidelity beyond any commendation of our own. In addition to his former very important services in illustrating the antiquities of Great Britain, he now calls our attention to the history of Pleshy, in Essex, once the seat of the high-constable of England, and the scene of many celebrated historical events. Mr. G. observes that among the various monuments of antiquity which abound in these kingdoms, few perhaps afford so much scope for fancy, as well as matter of history, as the venerable site of Pleshy Castle. The stupendous keep, amazing ditch, and magnificent bridge of one brick arch, must strike the most superficial spectator. But, on a closer inspection, this spot will be found to furnish some new lights for the illustration of our national antiquities. We may perhaps here trace the progress of fortification among us from the Roman to the Norman times. Few places afford more ample speculation to an English antiquary than this residence of our high-constables of England for four centuries from the conquest.

After a topographical description of this spot, Mr. G. enquires into the history of its illustrious tenants, until the time of Thomas of Woodstock, Duke of Gloucester, the particulars of whose life occupy the principal part of this volume, and are interwoven with the history of the reign of Richard II. his nephew, whose character and conduct are presented in a new and probably true light from a variety of authorities to which preceding historians have not had recourse. As it is impossible to present our readers with any detached passage as a specimen of this work, we can only say that in minuteness of research,

accuracy and impartiality of judgment, we have seldom met with an historical disquisition that deserves more to be relied upon. As the author had no hypothesis to support, his conclusions are such as are every where justified by the premises, and such as may occur to any fair reasoner who has access to the same authorities.

In investigating the character of Gloucester and of Richard II. Mr. G. has made much use of Froissart's chronicle, an author "who omitted no opportunity of satisfying his curiosity, and whose impartiality has been proved beyond contradiction." In this view large extracts have been made from his history, which our author observes has been so disfigured in all the editions hitherto printed, that it was necessary to have recourse to a beautiful MS. copy of it in the Royal Library now in the British Museum in six volumes folio, which were probably part of the ancient library of the king of France in the Louvre tower, collected and augmented by John, Charles V. and VI. and in 1425, when the English made themselves masters of Paris, purchased for 1200 francs by the duke of Bedford, regent, to be carried into England.—These circumstances will naturally create an impatience for the appearance of the promised translation of Froissart by Mr. Johnes of Hafod, whose late publication of St. Palaye's Memoirs is respectfully noticed by Mr. Gough.

The Appendix to this interesting work consists of thirty articles of reference, copies of grants, statutes &c. &c. The graphic illustrations are a portrait of Thomas, Duke of Gloucester, engraved from a manuscript in the Cottonian Library; several views of Pleshy castle and church, the bridge, &c. The arrest of the Duke of Gloucester by Richard II. and his murder at Calais, both from illuminations in Froissart: the monuments of the duke and duchess of Gloucester in Westminster-abbey; a curious view of the Tower of London, and bridge, &c. All these are accurate and some beautiful.—Upon the whole, this work must be considered as an important acquisition not only to the antiquary but to the historian, as it throws much light on a portion of our regal annals which has been greatly obscured by the negligence or partiality of former writers. It is only a matter of regret that we are obliged to dismiss works of this kind in terms of general commendation, but it would be impossible to offer any specimen that would not far exceed the limits of our Journal, or prove too short to give an idea of the contents of a work, which must be read in connection and with an attention to its numerous references and authorities. R.

John Gottlieb Walter's Plates of the Thoracic and Abdominal Nerves, reduced from the Original, as published by order of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Berlin; accompanied by Coloured Explanations, and a Description of the Par Vagum, Great Sympathetic and Phrenic Nerves.

The vast advantages which must result both to the physician and surgeon from an accurate knowledge of anatomy, do not require to be enumerated. Every really learned and skilful practitioner in medicine will readily own that without a complete acquaintance with the situation, the arrangement, and the peculiar functions of the various component parts of the human body, the instrument of the surgeon is not only in danger of doing irreparable mischief, but the physician cannot prescribe, with any certainty of success, for complaints of which he does not understand the seat and origin. There is no part of the human system to which more immediate danger of fatal consequences arises from ignorance, than the *nerves*. These tender chords, which are conveyed through every part of the body, extending on every side their infinitely minute ramifications, till they vanish altogether from the human eye, seem to be designed by nature as the organs of sensation, and the channel by which life is diffused through animated beings. A wound in an essential nerve is often fatal not only to the particular member which it animates, but to the existence of the animal.

To this very important subject of the nerves, the attention of anatomists has of late years been most usefully directed. The labours of John Gottlieb Walter are already known and esteemed by the learned in this science. The results of his enquiries into the distribution of the Thoracic and Abdominal Nerves have been given to the world in a magnificent form by the Royal Academy of Sciences of Berlin. The splendour of the plates however, has rendered the work too expensive to be fitted for general circulation. To remedy this inconvenience the present work is undertaken; the plates are reduced in size, and brought within the ability of ordinary purchasers.

The merit of the original author of these plates deserves every commendation. The situation of the nerves described in the human body, their origins, plexuses, ganglia, and other connections, are pointed out with a minuteness and accuracy hitherto unequalled. The extreme intricacy and difficulty of the subject heighten the merit of the execution; and when we consider the importance of the particular nerves here treated of to the human constitution, we shall feel ourselves called upon to acknowledge with gratitude the utility of his labours.

The reduced copy which is here presented to us deserves praise for the fidelity and neatness with which it is executed. The Par Vagum, the Great Sympathetic nerve, and the Phrenic nerve, not having been described by Walter, a description of them is added in the present work; and it is but justice to say that for precision and perspicuity this addition does no discredit to the descriptions which it accompanies. C.

The Salutary Effects of Vigour: exemplified in the Operation of the Nottingham Act, passed in the last Session of Parliament: Being a Sequel to Thoughts on the late General Election, as demonstrative of the progress of Jacobinism. By John Bowles, *Esq.* 14 *pp. Rivington.*

We have no doubt that Mr. Bowles means well; though the well-meaning of a man intoxicated with party principles we do not think of much value. But we differ from that hot gentleman most widely, in

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our opinion of the tendency of many things which he says and does; of their tendency, not only with regard to the interest of society in general, but with regard to the interest of that cause for which he is so very zealous. Whenever a partizan surpasses the bounds of discretion, decency, and common-sense, he more injures the side he defends, than that which he attacks.

The object of this *sequel*, which begins with page 137, to make it, in respect of pages at least, a continuation of the pamphlet mentioned in the title-page, is very simple and obvious. The author had represented the last general elections for the county of Middlesex and the town of Nottingham as very disorderly and disgraceful to the police of a civilized people; and further as affording evidence of a jacobinical spirit still existing in great strength in the country. An act was passed with regard to Nottingham on account of these disorders, a *vigorous act*, according to Mr. Bowles, which has been productive of *salutary effects*. The Middlesex election is about to be brought before parliament. He recommends earnestly an adoption of some similar measure on this occasion.

Thus far we have no objection whatever to the pamphlet. If the police of the county of Middlesex be imperfect, let it be amended by all means. It stands much in need of amendment in other parts of the empire, besides Nottingham and Middlesex. Let the author then think of the state of it in Ireland; and apply to that country his own maxim, which he says "should be engraven on the heart of every one who exercises the important functions either of legislation or magistracy—That law, without the aid of a vigorous and efficient system of police, is a dead letter, incapable of affording protection and of repressing disorder; but that, with such assistance, this otherwise lifeless form becomes at once the guardian of peace and order—the powerful ally of religion and virtue, of loyalty and freedom—the great Protectress and Benefactress of mankind. "We desire too, with every man who wishes well to freedom, and to the order of society, that effectual means could be adopted for preventing the infamous and disgusting scenes which are too often exhibited at elections; and which are much more frequently turned to the prejudice of freedom, than to its advancement. Had Mr. Bowles pressed these objects upon the attention of the legislature, preparing to pass a new law, we should have thought him entitled to praise; had he even pressed the objects of which we did not approve, we should have only said that we differed from him in opinion; and coarse language is a thing become too common to be greatly regarded. Great freedoms are often taken, in talking of the propriety or impropriety of a proposed law.

But there is one point with regard to which the most mercenary and unprincipled of our daily prints have hitherto thought themselves bound to observe some kind of delicacy, we mean the administration of justice in the country; and to anticipate the sentence of a court of law, to prejudge a decision, about to be legally awarded, to attempt by violent declamation and injurious imputations, to influence the minds of the judges in a case involving the life, fortune, or reputation of an individual, or individuals, is a violation of all justice and decorum which the grossest and meanest of our news-papers disclaim.

"The circumstances attending the Middlesex election," says Mr. Bowles, applying to it epithets which we shall at present forbear to repeat, "are about to be developed in a *judicial* manner." The dispute between Mr. Mainwaring and Sir Francis Burdett, a dispute of very great consequence to these two gentlemen, and to several others connected with them is to be examined, and decided by the only court of justice competent to the decision. It is surely of equal importance in this case, as in any other, that the judges should come with minds perfectly pure, perfectly exempt from all previous bias, and ready to take their whole impression from the evidence legally set before them on the trial. What in the mean time is done by Mr. Bowles? He comes before these judges, and before all the world, and with all the vehemence of language, pronounces condemnation on one of the parties; and as far as his influence goes makes the judges come to the examination of this cause with minds prejudiced in the highest possible degree:

"It is impossible for any mind that is not absolutely callous, as well as depraved, to reflect, without horror, on the flagrant, accumulated, and systematic perjury, which, in the case of the Mill Voters, stamped the last Middlesex election, and, if not punished, will stamp the British nation with indelible infamy. Perjury, however covert, however concealed from the eye of man, is a direct and daring outrage on the Majesty of Heaven. But in this instance it was open and notorious; it was manifest to every individual of the immense multitude who were present at the horrid profanation; it was too gross to admit even of any pretext of colour. It was denounced and protested against in the most solemn manner. It involved no fewer than 372 persons, who were suborned, and, in spite of the reluctance which some of them manifested, encouraged and prevailed upon to attest the Almighty to the truth of a most palpable lie. It was, under all these circumstances, permitted and accepted by the returning officers; and, as it constituted the *whole* majority of Sir F. B's, it was finally and publicly *sanctioned* by those officers, when they declared *that* candidate *upon their oaths*, to have, to the best of their judgement, the majority of legal votes!!! Whether a country which permits so gross, so daring an insult on the Sovereign Ruler of Heaven and Earth, to go unpunished, can, without the utmost presumption, hope for the Divine aid and protection in the hour of peril, is a question well deserving the consideration of those before whom this shocking scene of impiety is about to be developed, in a judicial manner."

We are persuaded that to the far greater part of our countrymen, and we are certain of the persons before whom the cause is to be tried, all comment upon this passage, one of the most extraordinary productions of the press which has yet come in our way, is needless. It is a common proverb, that all extremes have a tendency to meet; and jacobinism and anti-jacobinism, we have often thought, strongly confirm that maxim. M.

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The Decameron: or, Ten Days Entertainment of Boccaccio, translated from the Italian. The second Edition corrected and improved. To which are prefixed, Remarks on the Life and Writings of Boccaccio, and an Advertisement. By the Author *of Old Nick, &c. 2 vols.* 1804.

The additions and alterations which have been made in this second edition of the translation of the Decameron, constitute it in a considerable degree a new work, and call for some observations from the critic. The very great reputation for wit and elegance which this work of Boccaccio has continued to preserve during several centuries, naturally excites a desire to see this admired genius appear in an English dress, such as he has been universally considered by his countrymen. To translate wit and elegance is however a very difficult task; and the meaning of an author who is distinguished for these qualities may be given, without almost an atom of his original character being represented in the translation. The vivacity of Boccaccio is almost necessary to transfuse the spirit of the Decameron into English. The translation before us is attended with many disadvantages, which conspire to render it a very imperfect copy of the original, even without conveying any marked reflection on the inadequacy of the present Editor's abilities. The first edition of it, which was published in 1741, contained many grammatical errors, and several misapprehensions of the meaning of the author. The language was besides pervaded by that obsolete and ungraceful manner of expression, which still continued to adhere to inferior writers, for half a century after the Augustan age of Queen Anne; nor was it difficult to discover that the work was a translation from a language differing in idiom and arrangement. The present Editor has undertaken to correct these defects; but in doing so, he informs us in his advertisement, that he did not consider himself at liberty to make such *mutations* as his judgment would at all times have suggested to him. The translation as it is now presented to us, is therefore at best an old wardrobe of the last century, made up anew and fitted to the present mode. We do not question the industry, or even the taste of the workman, but we must say that all his skill has not been able to reduce the shapes entirely to the new mode, nor even to conceal the stitching and wrinkles of the former plaiting.

That this is the best English translation of Boccaccio at present in existence, we shall not dispute; but certainly it does not yet present to us that picture of this agreeable author which we could wish to see offered to our countrymen. The licentiousness of the Decameron in many instances justly merits condemnation; and we should be satisfied to see several of the tales entirely omitted in a translation. We question however whether the general tenor of the Decameron is calculated to produce any real injury to morality. It represents a state of manners so entirely different from those of the present day, that the licentiousness of the Florentines rather makes us learn with surprise what sentiments prevailed in the fourteenth century, than excites in our minds any congenial emotions. The libertinism of Fontaine, approaching much nearer the present state of manners, is far more seducing than that of Boccaccio; the masked libertinism of our modern sentimental plays and novels, is infinitely more dangerous than either. In a translation of the Decameron, executed with elegance and spirit, every grosser and more licentious sentiment might be omitted, and the reader still be equally delighted with a sprightly display of the manners of Florence in the fourteenth century.

The account of the Life and Writings of Boccaccio, which is prefixed to the present edition, displays not a little research, and contains a considerable collection of facts extracted from various sources. This is all the merit which the modest Editor presumes to aspire to, and this merit we willingly allow him. We must however observe, that the specimen which he here gives of his style in original composition, does not point him out as the person qualified to display Boccaccio in a proper English dress. We copy the first sentence as a warning to young authors, who expect to become *fine writers* by turning a sentence and accumulating sounding words without a meaning:—"The human mind, in a cultivated state, is naturally prone, and fondly devoted to the study, and contemplation of the mental efforts of man: and we incline to the attainment of every intelligence respecting the character and habits, and even the features and looks of men celebrated for their genius, with a fervency of desire, and an eagerness of inquiry, not more consistent with our relative situation, than worthy of the generous feelings and honourable ambition of souls, that love to admire, and dare to emulate the proudest distinction of our nature." Some words altogether misapplied led us to suspect that the Editor was a foreigner. Mentioning certain works which some ascribe to Boccaccio, and others deny to belong to him, he says, "they seem *chimerical*, and some of them certainly are so:" the idea which the author undoubtedly meant to convey is that "they seem *apocryphal*." Q.

The Picture; Verses written in London, May 28, 1803. *Suggested by a magnificent Landscape of Rubens, in possession of Sir George Beaumont, by the Rev.* W. Lisle Bowles. *Cadell and Davies. 4to. 20 pp.*

Amidst the swarm of *clubbed* Poets, who have buzzed about our ears, and stunned the public with their noise, we are glad to observe the productions of real genius. Mr. Bowles has long been deservedly placed in the first class of modern poets. The Muse of fire, yet of melancholy, who has hitherto inspired all his publications, breathes throughout the present didactic poem: to which is added considerable novelty in point of composition. The Poem is in blank verse, and its author has added a striking beauty, by introducing the following Song, which has the effect of an air in an overture of music:

"Listen to the Song
Of yonder Milk-Maid, as she brims her pail,
Whilst in the yellow pasture, pensive near,
The red cows ruminate—
Leave the loud tumultuous throng,
And listen, listen, listen
To the Milk-Maid's simple Song.

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SONG.

" Forget me not, tho' forced to go
Wide o'er the roaring sea;
When the night-winds blow,
And the Moon is high
In the paly sky
My Love I will think of thee.
" He look'd in my eyes, for I could not speak:
A tear he wiped from his dark brown cheek.
O then, my own true Sailor said,
Though the roaring Sea
Part my Love and me;
Yet if lack betide
My bonny, bonny Bride,
She shall be the young milk-maid."
O green are the rushes that flow'r in the burne,
And I grieve for my Love, who may never return.

The following passage will best enable our readers to judge of the uncommon merit of this poem:

" Still let us gaze,
And image ev'ry form of heart-felt joy
Which Scenes like these bestow, that charm the sight,
Yet sooth the spirit: all is quiet here,
Yet cheerful as the green Sea, when it shines
In some still bay, shines in its loveliness
Beneath the breeze that moves, and hardly moves
The placid surface.
" On the balustrade
Of the old bridge, that o'er the moat is thrown,
The Fisher, with his angle, leans intent,
And turns from the bright pomp of spreading plains
To watch the nimble fry, that glancing oft
Beneath the grey arch shoot! O happiest He,
Who steals thro' Life untroubled as unseen!
The distant city, with it's crowded spires,
That dimly shines upon his view, awakes
No thought, but that of Pleasure more composed,
As the Winds whisper him to sounder sleep.
He leans upon the faithful arm of Her
For whom his youthful heart beat, fondly beat,
When Life was new: time steals away, yet health
And exercise are his; and in these shades,
Though sometimes he has mourn'd a proud World's wrong,
He feels an INDEPENDENCE that all Cares
Breasts with a carol of Content: he hears
The green leaves of his old paternal Trees
Make music, soothing, as they stir: the Elm,
And Poplar with its silvery trunk, that shade
The green-sward of the bank before his porch,
Are to him as companions—while he turns
With more endearment to the living smile
Of those his Infants, who, when he is dead,
Shall hear the music of the self same trees
Waving, till years roll on, and their gray hairs
Go to the dust in peace."

In a note to this Poem, we are informed that Sir George Beaumont has had it in contemplation to illustrate the picturesque character of Theocritus, from new translations by Messrs. *Sotheby*, *Rogers*, *Howley*, *W. Spencer*, and *Mr. Bowles*. S. Q.

Harry Clinton. A Tale for Youth. 12mo.

This abridgement of the *Fool of Quality*, we learn from the Dedication, is executed by Miss Hays, a lady already known in the literary world. To the labours of the female sex, the youth of the present generation are indebted for many valuable sources of instruction; and the exertions of Mrs. Barbauld, Mrs. Trimmer, and other women of talents, for this laudable purpose, cannot be sufficiently applauded. It is here that female writers appear in their most useful and most amiable character, fostering early virtue, and infusing proper sentiments into the uninformed minds of the young. For such praise-worthy labours of some of our fair country-women, we are inclined in a great measure to pardon those of their sister authoresses, who have flooded the literary world with their torrents of sentiment and nonsense.

The plan followed by Miss Hays, of adapting a novel of reputation for the perusal of youth, is worthy of imitation. There is scarcely a novel in our language, where the real manners of life are accurately and elegantly described, which, either from its length, its intricate story, or its licentious descriptions, is not unfit to be put into the hands of youth not yet arrived at some maturity of judgement. Yet were these obstacles removed, what could be put into the hands of the inexperienced with more advantage, than such well-drawn pictures of life? They would thus be enabled to reap the fruits of experience without its concomitant dangers. We are aware that many strong arguments have been advanced in favour of preferring real to fictitious histories for the instruction of youth; and were any real histories in existence, or likely to be in existence, which could afford to the ignorant compleat examples for their future conduct, we should not hesitate in giving them a decided preference. But for such, we shall look in vain: for in political histories, minute details of character are seldom to be expected, and still more seldom found; and our biographies are all so much a recital of incidents, without causes or connection, that the few sign-posts they present are altogether insufficient to direct the inexperienced traveller through the forest with which he is totally unacquainted. A conviction of this truth induced Xenophon, a philosopher who had examined and understood human nature, to write his Cyropedia, that inestimable treasure of instruction for princes and statesmen. We may indeed affirm that all the histories and biographies in the English language do not afford so many distinct and applicable examples for directing the conduct of early youth, as are to be found in Robinson Crusoe, and Sandford and Merton.

The Fool of Quality, of which the little volume before us is an abridgement, was professedly undertaken by its author, Mr. Brookes, for the instruction of youth. The succeeding deprivation of reason, however, which overtook this unhappy genius before he had concluded the second volume, caused him frequently to waver in his plan; and the three last volumes, which were written during lucid intervals, frequently betray the wanderings of a distempered imagination. To retrench useless digressions, and in particular those long religious discussions which certainly are often utterly incomprehensible to a child, are the avowed objects of the present abridgement. The judgement with which the retrenchments are generally made may receive some approbation. The retention of the story of Hammel Clement however deserves reprehension. To parents and instructors this episode is undoubtedly useful; but for the perusal of youth of the most tender years, for whom the

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abridgement is avowedly intended, it is worse than useless. It is a bad principle to inculcate on their opening minds, that parents may be capricious, cruel, and unjust.

There is something in the general tenor of Mr. Brookes's narrative which we could have wished, for the benefit of youth, to see remedied in this abridgement. There is a sickly sort of sentiment, probably arising from his state of mind, which pervades his work. The misfortunes of the wretched are indeed relieved; but they are relieved by means which seldom occur in real life. Many seem brought into a distress from which an effort of industry might have extricated them, merely to afford opportunities for exercising the beneficence of Mr. Fenton and his adopted son. Resources to supply such beneficence are in the power of few; the impression therefore left on the mind of the youthful reader, who is not possessed of them, is a mournful regret that he does not possess the means of being a Harry Clinton. Such impressions are calculated to produce a dispirited languor, instead of arousing industry, and exciting an active emulation. It is the peculiar praise of the works we mentioned above, Robinson Crusoe and Sandford and Merton, that they present examples of supplying the wants and relieving the distresses of others, by means within the reach of every one who has industry enough to exert himself. If Miss Hays would undertake the useful task of forming the sentiments and actions of Harry Clinton on this principle, we should not fail to applaud her exertions, and recommend her work to every parent and instructor.

Ω.

The Barons of Felsheim, a Romance. Translated from the French of Pigault Lebrun. 3 vols. 12mo. Lane.

This eccentric and interesting work may be denominated a *Military Novel*, in which historical facts and characters are judiciously introduced, and impressed on the reader's mind: notwithstanding some few passages which have a savour of republican sentiments and principles, we can recommend it to our young soldiers of rank and fashion, as an antidote to the many evils that surround them: and we assert, that no one will arise from its perusal without being gratified at the variety of incidents, and the considerable portion of novelty which it contains.

The author does not take off his wonted cap with bells, as Sterne would style it, until the death of the second Baron of *Felsheim* that is mentioned, Ferdinand the 15th. Previous to this the reader is amused, and sometimes distracted, at the manner in which two old German soldiers ride their respective hobby-horses; the one a Baron, and the other an old Hussar who had been his quarter-master. The German character is admirably preserved, and forms a counter-part, without being an imitation of English military follies, as displayed in uncle Toby and Trim. The German baron, and his old hussar, *Brandt*, keep up their revels at a dilapidated castle in Lower Saxony, at a short distance from *Lunebourg*, supposed to have been built by the famous *Witikind*, at the time of the invasion of Charlemagne:

"The repairs of the Castle, and the payment the Baron had just made, had dreadfully diminished his finances. He was short of ready cash, nor had *Brandt* the slightest objection to it; besides, so august a person as the Baron of *Felsheim* ought to cut a figure in his domains, to receive and entertain the barons, his neighbours; and this was not to be done without money. Thus circumstanced, he resolved upon selling a few acres of wood, separated from his principal estate, but which he nevertheless regretted, because they abounded in wild boars and wolves all the year round; and woodcocks in the season. In truth the Baron, lame, blind of an eye, and with only one arm, could not easily hunt; yet a Baron, be he what he will, must always remember his former dignity: but the sight of six thousand florins, paid down, consoled him for the loss of his wood; and he delivered them to *Brandt*, with strict orders to use them for the glory and necessities of his colonel.

"Thus *Brandt* added the important functions of treasurer, to the brilliant and numerous employments with which he had before been honoured. As he was a man of profound judgment, he soon discovered that he could not execute them all; and one night, after they had retired to their beds, he advised the Baron, as he filled out his *twentieth* glass, to put his establishment upon a footing adequate to his birth and fortune; but his harangue was vain, for the Baron had lost the power of attending, which, as soon as *Brandt* discovered, he emptied the last bottle, and went to sleep.——'My lord Baron' said *Brandt* when they awoke, 'I have, at times, excellent ideas; which are lost when I do not communicate them immediately. I was thinking last night——'——'What?'——'I am trying to recollect!.....Oh! now I have it. ....you are possessed of six thousand florins per annum, a magnificent Castle; are as noble as all the chapters of Germany put together, and you live like a miser."——'How so?'—'Why, except you and I, and a few owls, not a creature is to be seen in this place. You ought to have parasites to flatter you, and hangers-on to eat you up; for we two cannot possibly drink to the amount of six thousand florins a-year. I know your valiant atchievements by heart; and whom can you in future entertain with them, but the nobility of the neighbourhood?'—'I have had some thoughts of that,' said the Baron.—'But how can you receive them, if you have no attendants? I am your butler, cook, caterer, valet de chambre, squire, huntsman, and treasurer. It is lamentable my lord, there is no style, no air in it, and a man like you, was made to be conspicuous.'—'You are right; and from this moment, I appoint you my *major-domo*; chuse your subordinates.'

"*Brandt* rose, dressed, breakfasted, and flew to the village. There he picked up an old house-keeper who had lived with the curate, whom he constituted cook; two shepherds, whom he made huntsmen; and four dogs, that he converted into a pack of hounds. The school-master who knew a little church-music, was chosen to compose the Baron's harmonies; the Vicar of the place was appointed grand-almoner; six brisk lads became his pages, and eight deserters formed his body-guard.

"This large establishment, at first alarmed the Baron; but his *major-domo* speedily dissipated his fears, by informing him of the different emoluments destined for each. The cook was to have for wages the broken victuals and the usual surplus of the kitchen; out of which she agreed to furnish yearly two fat pigs. The huntsmen were to have the game that was not eaten at the castle. The pack to live at the expence of the neighbouring flocks. The school-master to receive half a florin for every romance he should be required to sing. The grand-almoner a florin and a dinner every Sunday, for celebrating a short mass in the chapel of the castle, and pronouncing the funeral orations of all the Barons of *Felsheim*: from Ferdinand the First

to Ferdinand the Fourteenth inclusive. The pages were allowed a new coat made of some old tapestry, which *Brandt* had discovered in a closet, besides soup and bread, and what else they could pilfer out of the pantry. The body-guards were equipped as hussars, in some old regimentals that were left when the Baron's corps was disbanded; and enjoined to live as they could, but to conduct themselves civilly; and, when they stole any poultry, to do it without making them cry out. In short, *Brandt* took upon himself to bring to reason such of the Baron's vassals as this arrangement might displease, and these conditions proposed and accepted, every one entered on his post."

The Author occasionally introduces some pertinent and keen remarks on the prevailing literary follies of the age; and throughout displays a knowledge of character, and an attention to the minute shades by which it is formed.

The Second Volume of this military Romance opens with the history of Tekeli, the celebrated Hungarian soldier and King: who was born in 1658, and married the Princess *Ragotski*, daughter of the Count de Serin, in 1682.—After a life of anxiety, and sudden reverses of fortune, this distinguished warrior died at Constantinople on the 13th of September, 1705. The general outline of his history, at least the beginning of it, is well preserved by our author, and may serve to draw the attention of our countrymen to the hitherto neglected history of Hungary.

After this digression, the attention of the reader is directed to the court of the celebrated Frederic, King of Prussia, with whom Charles, the young Baron of Felsheim lives as a page. Frederic's character is admirably supported, and some of his principal battles are narrated with spirit.

On his first arrival at Berlin the young soldier prepares to present himself before Frederic in all the costume of a modern military beau. On going to the parade, he meets his father's friend, *Count Fersen*, one of the generals; who examining the young Baron from head to foot, exclaims in a cold and severe air—*"How many hours have you passed at your toilet?—Go, and have that toupee, and those curls taken off, quit that laced habit, and come and join me on the parade."*—The young man reluctantly obeys; his finery is taken off, and Charles then waits at a distance from the line, until a corporal of the guards, with the back of his hand nailed to his hat, his heels joined, chest open, and head erect, approached and asked Charles if he was not the person the General expected.—— The General shook him heartily by the hand, and led him towards a groupe of officers, in the midst of whom was a man plainly dressed: *"The person you see there,"* said the Count, *"is the King you are going to serve: he has neither toupee, side curls, nor a laced coat!"*

At three in the morning, by appointment, he presents himself at the palace:—

"The officer of the guard consigned *Charles* to the adjutant, who was walking to and fro expecting him: *You are going to appear before Frederic*, said the latter, *and perhaps he will interrogate you:—have your recollection about you; and above all, let your answers be clear and concise.* Poor little *Charles* knew not what to think of all this: Nothing that he saw or heard, bore the slightest similitude to his past habits. He felt the necessity of becoming a new man, and resigned himself to his fate. *Charles* entered the king's Study: the simplicity of his dress, which seemed to say to the beholders, 'the external appearance is something, when the individual is nothing;' the facility with which he was approached, the piercing fire of his looks, and the high character fame had already published of this Prince, all conspired to penetrate the young man with wonder, and respect. He stood near the door, hardly daring to breathe, and his heart beat with incredible force. The king had a large map of *Silesia* before him, seemed buried in reflection, and was making notes.

"At length, he turned towards the young page, and made him a sign to come forward. 'How old are you?'—'Fifteen and a half.'—'What do you know?'—'Very little, Sire.'—'No words; what do you know?'—'A little of mathematics, drawing, geography, history and music.'—'Let us see; how do you take the surface of a circle?'—'In multiplying the circumference by half the radius.'—'What is painting?'—'The art of imitating objects by the means of light and shade.'—'Which is the first fortified town in *Silesia* on the side of *Brandenburg*?'—'Glogan.'—The king was silent a moment, and regarded *Charles* stedfastly, who embarrassed beyond expression, knew not which way to look. 'Raise your eyes and look at me.' Charles recovered himself a little. 'Can you draw a plan?'—'I never tried.'—'Can you copy one?'—'Yes, Sire.'—'Can you ride on horseback?'—'My mother would never permit me.'—'Can you ride on horseback?'—'No; Sire.'—'Are you afraid of horses?'—'I am afraid of nothing.'—'This is the manner in which I like to have my questions answered: Adjutant, I place this young man amongst the pages of my chamber; he shall not follow the lessons of the preceptor, but you will make him ride on horseback two hours every morning, and as long in an afternoon. I wish him to be able to follow me in less than a month. Go, and get him his uniform!'

The manner in which the young Baron of Felsheim is afterwards led into dissipation, and plunged into the difficulties of a gambler, cannot fail of having a due influence on a young mind; this forms the beginning of the third volume. *Charles* in consequence is sent by the King as a prisoner to the fortress of *Spandow*, a state prison about two miles from Berlin. Here he is followed by the faithful hussar, *Brandt*, whose character, if it sometimes runs into *caricatura*, is nevertheless bold, and original. The attachment of *Charles* to the fair *Baltide* forms the *denouement* of the whole, which is wrought up with new, and uncommon interest: the libertinism that leads to this, might we think have been softened or avoided, since, not to mention any other consequence, it tends to lower the character of the hero: throughout the work there is too much of this *French sprinkling*; still however, as a Military Romance these volumes possess considerable merit, and must eventually be productive of good, notwithstanding such defects.

Pigault Lebrun, from the year 1789 to 1792, had been advantageously known as a comic writer, and had written many plays for the Theatre de la République, the Theatre de la Cité, the Theatre Feydeau, and the Odeon. Ever since the year 1792, he has been equally known as a writer of romances, the best of which, before his latest publications in this line, was accounted his *Enfant du Carneval*, of which the *first edition* appeared in 1792, and the second in 1796, in 8vo. S. Q.

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FOREIGN.

Rivalité de la France et de l'Angleterre, or a History of the Rivalship between France and England, from the Conquest by William of Normandy, in 1066, *till the Violation of the Treaty of Amiens by England. By* C. Vienot Vaublanc, *Member of the Legislative Body.* 1 *vol.* 8vo.

This work has been written *expressly* for the particular purpose of shewing, that in the whole course of this rivalship traced backward by the author through seven ages, the government of England has always employed perfidy, cunning, and insolence, to which the French have opposed only bravery, *loyalty*, and *moderation*. On the part of France, all is greatness, generosity of soul, and *fidelity*; on that of England, meanness, baseness and *Punic faith*. One of the gravest of the French Journals has extolled this book to the skies, applying to it the quotation:

Indocti discant, et ament meminisse periti.

The ignorant are instructed, and the learned have their memories refreshed.

We however cannot find any other merit in the book than that of *invention*, of which a tolerable specimen is given, when the author gravely asserts that the French, with an equal force, have been uniformly victorious at *sea*; "Tattle, I shall have an esteem for thee, thou hast more impudence than one could in reason expect." In a history written with a particular design, one may look for a bold perversion of truth, but this *Member of the Legislative Body* with assertions so absurd as to deserve nothing but ridicule, has displayed an ignorance of his mother tongue so gross, that even the warmest of his eulogists are ashamed of it, and forced to confess that the style and execution of the work is miserable, though according to them, the foundation is estimable and *patriotic*. D.

Dissertation sur le Cholera Morbus. Par I. S. Sengensse, *Docteur en Medecine, Chirurgien-Major du Corps des Pompiers de Paris. Un vol.* 8vo.

This disease which consists of the evacuation both upwards and downwards of bilious or bile-coloured matter, accompanied with spasm and excruciating pains in the bowels, is neither common nor particularly violent in our climate, and still less so in countries further to the north, but it is very frequent and intense in southern climates, such as Italy, Greece, the islands of the Mediterranean, South America, &c. In order therefore to give a complete account of this disease, that may be of essential benefit to the science of Medicine, its effects must be witnessed in the countries where it is found to prevail in its utmost severity. M. Sengensse has had this advantage; his travels in Turkey have given him an opportunity of being an eye-witness to the effects of *Cholera* in all their intensity. It is moreover necessary to consult the works of those authors who have practised medicine in the hot countries, and who have turned their attention to this disease in particular. The ancients and moderns have furnished M. Sengensse with materials in this respect of which he has not neglected to avail himself for the completion of his work. Hippocrates, Galen, Celsus, Cælius Aurellianus, Bontius, with a multitude of more modern observers have been cited, and prove that the author has dived into the very best sources.—It is further necessary that facts should be collected and arranged, opinions reconciled, points of controversy discussed, and above all that no conclusion should be drawn except from experience and well attested results. This part of the work, without question the most difficult, is not therefore the less satisfactory. In observing with what diligence the author has treated the general history of the *Cholera Morbus*; with what sagacity he has explained its predisposing and accidental causes; and with what perspicuity he has displayed its symptoms and prognostics, one cannot help being surprised at the degree of interest he has given to matter that appeared so little capable of it.

The same powers of discrimination have dictated the mode of treatment, upon which the moderns have differed no less than the ancients. The author has reduced its principles to three general rules, according to the different aspects of the malady. The first consists in facilitating the evacuations, the second in allaying the spasm, and the third in supporting the vital powers. The work concludes with a discussion of the point, what place the *Cholera Morbus* ought to occupy in the system of Nosology, and the author seems to lean to the opinion that it ought to be ranged in the series of fluxes. This dissertation is written with method. The style is simple, but pure and precise, as ought always to be the case in a scientific work. The author mentions several curious facts, and among the rest that Diogenes the Cynic died of the *cholera morbus*, occasioned by eating part of a bullock's foot, ill-dressed; and Sydenham of the same disease, caused by a retropulsion of the gout. n.

Exposition de la Doctrine Physionomique du Docteur Gall, *ou nouvelle Theorie du cerveau considéré comme le siege des Facultés intellectuelles et morales. A Paris. Anonyme.*

This exposition of Doctor Gall's new theory of the brain considered as the seat of the intellectual and moral faculties is published in one volume octavo, with the motto "*Felix qui potuit rerum cognoscere causas.* Virg. Philosophers have been puzzled in all ages to explain the cause of the physical and moral differences that exist between different nations and even between individuals of the same nation. Some have attributed these differences to education, among whom appears to have been the late Dr. Johnson, and according to them every man is originally born with the same capability of improvement. Others have modified this opinion and to the difference of education have added that of climate, and some have even gone so far as to make the physical and moral faculties of man depend entirely on the climate, so that the human faculties might be measured upon the globe by degrees of latitude. But Milton was born in England and Linnæus in Sweden, Homer in Greece and Virgil in Italy. The modern physiologists with greater plausibility have ascribed these varieties to a real difference in the organs of each individual.

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This however has been stretched to an untenable length by Lavater and others who have deduced from it rules to judge of a person's secret thoughts and propensities, by observing the form of his body, and the colour and traits of his countenance. Other physiologists have referred all the distinctions between the intellectual and moral faculties of men to a particular organization of the fibres of the brain. Above all, this appears to be the opinion of Dr. Gall, for according to his theory, even the difference in the figure of the skull in every individual is the effect of the different organization of the brain. Every faculty he considers as having a distinct and separate place in the substance of the brain, and this being put in action by the organ peculiar to it, necessarily expands that organ, and its tension by frequent use produces a hollow in the internal part of the skull, next to which the organ is placed, and consequently a protuberance on the external part: so that an observer may, by the touch, learn the predominance of any particular organ and consequently of the moral habit or intellectual faculty connected with that organ. The two phenomena which form the basis of this theory then are, that the tension of an organ augments that part of the brain where it is placed, and that traces of this are even left upon the skull. If these were facts, nothing could be more easily proved by an examination of the organ in a fresh subject, corresponding to the propensity for which the person was remarkable when alive. But when we come to look for proof, we have nothing but that "Pangloss said it, and certainly he was a great philosopher." H.

Nouveaux Principes de Geologie, Mineralogie, Geographie, Physique, &c. &c. comparés et opposés a ceux des Philosophes Anciens et Modernes jusqu'a J. C. Delametherie, *qui les a tous analysés dans sa Theorie de la Terre: avec un abregé d'une Geologie toute nouvelle: par* P. Bertrand, *Inspecteur-General des Ponts et Chaussées, à Paris, chez L' Auteur.* 1 *vol.* 8*vo.*

This work is deserving of notice rather for its singularity than any intrinsic merit. One would almost be tempted to think that this Inspector-General of bridges and causeways had meant to satirize the absurd theories of his predecessors, did we not know into how many extravagancies the love of hypothesis leads the philosophers of the continent. The sum of the author's theory is shortly this. Having, as he himself observes, travelled in his public capacity over *stones* and *water* (we suppose bridges and causeways) for a long period of time, he thought of giving a theory of the earth, and adds that no one had ever more curiosity, more perseverance, or more opportunities for the examination of the principles of geology than himself. The result of all this is, that the original matter of the globe was water, which however existed in the form of ice till it was put in motion. This aqueous mass was put in motion by some mechanical force, and time will be at an end with us, when this mechanical force is exhausted. *Native* calcareous earth was produced by the universal element of water. The globe then produced vegetables and terrestrial animals by means of those which had been left upon dry ground by the retreat of the sea, which had been peopled a long time before (but how peopled is not said.) These by means of putrefaction, fermentation, and certain meteors became in their turn very productive; and from cinders caused by the heat, were derived minerals in all their varieties. But how was man produced? The Inspector of bridges does not flatter our self-love. Farewell to our sweet illusions and to the *os homini sublime dedit!!* The earth was formed of water, and man was naturally formed from *fish*. The first productions of the earth were deformed monsters, till by gradations man was produced, who in his turn, however, produced the race of the *apes*. The reason of man's superiority over these last is, that he conquered and exterminated the intermediate species who wished to dispute with him the empire of the earth, viz. the apes who approached nearer to humanity than the Ourang outangs.

Such then is a specimen of this delicious morsel. Those who wish for a farther regale, may apply to the original work. It is hardly possible however not to remark how exactly the threat seems to be executed upon those who abandon the only guide that can conduct them through the obscurity: "They shall be abandoned to the workings of a vain imagination."

D.

List of New Publications from Jan. 16, to Feb. 1, 1804.
Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, TRAVELS, &c.

A Series of Letters, written from South America, by an English Gentleman, detained a Prisoner by the Spaniards in Paraguay, descriptive of the Country, Government, and Manners of the Inhabitants. N° I. Royal 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*
To be completed in Six Numbers, published Monthly, adorned with Engravings, from Drawings taken on the Spot.

Memoirs of the Life of Dr. Darwin, from his settlement at Litchfield to his removal to Derby, with Anecdotes of his Friends, and Criticisms on his Writings. By Anna Seward. 8vo. (*) 7*s.*

POLITICS.

A Vindication of Mr. Pitt, for having moved the Previous Question on the Motion of Colonel Patten; with a View of that great Statesman's Conduct from that Period to the Present. 1*s.* 6*d.*
The cant phrases of the houses of parliament are very frequent in this pamphlet; but with this exception it is rather well written. Considerable ingenuity is employed to shew that Mr. Pitt acted consistently, honourably, and virtuously, when, on Colonel Patten's motion, he neither voted for the censure of ministers, nor against it; but moved the previous question, after declaring, that though he did not altogether approve of the conduct of the ministers, he did not disapprove of it so much as to vote for the censure moved against them.

In the parliamentary business which succeeded, Mr. Pitt, while he did not disapprove of the general plan of the ministers for the defence of the country, complained of want of expedition; and in the arrangement of the supplies he found fault with nothing but a subordinate par-

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ticular respecting the tax on income; and in the present session he has proposed the appointment of field-officers to the volunteers. In all these respects the author pours out the highest praises upon Mr. Pitt; and indeed speaks of his character in general in the terms which were very common five or six years ago.

A kind of digression is introduced into the pamphlet, where Lord Hawkesbury, and Mr. Yorke, the Lord Chancellor, the Master of the Rolls, the Attorney-General, and the Solicitor-General, are particularly eulogized.

A View of the Relative Situations of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington, previous to, and on the Night of Mr. Patten's Motion. By a Member of Parliament. 8vo. 3*s.*

This pamphlet contains an historical review of the conduct of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington, during the period when the former gentleman was in power, and the latter out of it. In this review the conduct of Mr. Pitt is held out in the best point of view, and that of Mr. Addington is by consequence blamed. There is perhaps nothing said, either for the one, or against the other, which has not been said before. The subjects are put, however, in a light, rather new; and the language is better than the general standard of pamphlet writing.

Thoughts on the Present State of Affairs, and the Prospect of Invasion. Addressed to the Volunteers of the United Empire, and the People. By a Friend to his Country. 1*s.* 6*d.*

A Short Appeal to the Good Sense of the People of the United Kingdom, especially recommended to the attentive Perusal of their Representatives in Parliament—occasioned by reading "A Plain Answer to the Misrepresentations and Calumnies contained in the Cursory Remarks of a Near Observer. 2*s.*

This pamphlet is a sort of reply to the Plain Answer. It reviews some of the most important measures adopted during the administration of Mr. Pitt, and condemns them in terms of severity, perhaps too little qualified. To the blunders of Mr. Pitt and his colleagues while in office, the heavy pressure of the taxes and the evils resulting from the late war are ascribed, and the inconveniencies of our present situation are also traced to the same source. The writer labours to exculpate Mr. Addington from the charges of incapacity and want of steadiness urged against him by the Pitt and Grenville parties. With this view he mentions the vast numbers who have enrolled themselves as volunteers in the service of their country, which plainly shews, he observes, that the present administration possess the confidence of the nation. It must indeed be sufficiently clear to every one that the haughty and authoritative tone of the late administration was not well calculated to conciliate popular favour, and perhaps it is from this circumstance that a great part of whatever popularity is possessed by the present administration proceeds. The writer of this pamphlet, in describing his *bearings*, observes that he belongs neither to club nor party. Of this, however, he will find it difficult to convince his readers, for the violence with which he expresses either his praise or censure, bears the most impressive mark of party spirit. An outrageous defence of any party is worse than none, and rather injures than promotes the cause it is meant to serve, for the mind is instantly set on its guard, and the force of those observations that may perhaps be just are blunted. Such, without entering at all into the merits of the dispute between the contending parties, is the character of the Short Appeal. The stile is in general laboured and unpolished.

A Delineation of the probable Mode of Operations of the French Armies for the Conquest of the British Empire with a Plan for the Arrangement of the British Armies to defeat that Project, &c. By T. Colpitts. 2*s.*

In this pamphlet the author first describes the means possessed by our enemies for invading this country, the immense extent of their coast and prodigious command of troops. He then delineates their most probable plans of operation after they shall have landed. These plans, he concludes, with reason, will be bold, rapid, and uncommon, corresponding to the character of the enemy by whom they are to be conceived and executed. The best means of defeating the operations of the enemy are then pointed out, in the discussion of which, many observations are introduced, to which our field officers and commanders would do well to attend. We were particularly struck with his remarks on our cavalry, which, he justly observes, though the finest in the world, would be almost entirely inefficient against an army surrounded according to the practice of the French, with sharp-shooters. He proposes that they should be taught the use of the rifle, and rendered to all intents and purposes mounted infantry. This would make them the most formidable description of troops that can be well imagined, for, when once a battalion was put to flight, the celerity of the movements of such cavalry would enable them to annihilate it. The French troops are at present exercised upon this plan, and it is impossible not to feel the utmost surprize that so many proofs of the superiority of the French tactics, have not as yet succeeded in eradicating our old prejudices on many points of military discipline. From the nature of the subject, it will be evident that a great part of our author's ideas in this publication are conjectural, but his conjectures are founded upon reason and probability. His observations which at any time would be important, are peculiarly interesting and valuable at the present crisis.

Some Observations on the Propriety of effectually employing our present Military Force against France, and a few Cursory Remarks on the threatened Invasion. 1*s.* 6*d.*

Outlines of Rational Patriotism, and Plea for Loyalty. Addressed to Young Volunteers. By J. T. Hatfield, 2*s.* 6*d.*

Salutary Effects of Vigour; exemplified in the Operation of the Nottingham Act, passed in the last Session of Parliament. By John Bowles, Esq. 6*d.*

See page 145.

THEOLOGY.

Unity, the Bond of Peace and the Friend of Virtue; or, the Consequences of Schism; morally and politically considered, tracing its Progress, and pointing out some of the Means to check it. 8vo. (*) 7*s.*

Considerations on the general Conditions of the Christian Covenant; with a View to some important Controversies. By Joseph Holden Pott, A.M. 3*s.*

Primitive Truth and Order Vindicated from Modern Misrepresentation: with a Defence of Episcopacy, particularly that of Scotland, against an Attack made on it by the late Dr. Campbell, of Aberdeen, in his Lectures on Ecclesiastical History: and a concluding Address to the Episcopalians of Scotland. By the Right Reverend John Skinner, in Aberdeen. 8vo. (*) 8*s.*

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A Sermon preached on Tuesday, January 3, 1804; at the Presentation of Colours, by the Countess of Harrington, as Representative of her Majesty, to the Queen's Royal Regiment of Volunteers. Published at the Request of the Corps, and Dedicated, by Permission, to her Majesty. By the Rev. James Moore, LL.B. 1*s.*

The scope of this sermon is to shew the efficacy of prayer in obtaining the divine favour upon our exertions at this critical period, and the necessity of being on our guard against the enemy. On perusing it, the most prominent sensation excited in the mind, was that of surprize how it was possible on such an occasion, to treat the subject with so much apathy. Peace be to its ashes!!

LAW.

Reports of Cases determined in the Time of Lord Chancellor Eldon. Vol. VII. Containing from Easter Term to the Sittings of Trinity Term inclusive, 42 Geo. III. 1*l.* 3*s.*

Observations on the Statute of the First of William and Mary, cap. 18. commonly called the Toleration Act, and on the Statutes of the 19th of Geo. III. cap. 44, intitled, "An Act for a further Relief of Protestant Ministers and School-masters. 2*s.*

MEDICINE.

Practical Advice in the Cure and Prevention of those peculiar Nervous Affections and Disorders of the Breast and Lungs, arising from poisonous Metals and Minerals, &c. &c. 1*s.* 6*d.*

MECHANICS.

A Supplement to a Tract, intitled, A Treatise on the Construction and Properties of Arches, published in the Year 1801. By George Atwood, Esq. F.R.S. 7*s.* 6*d.*

NOVELS.

Malvina, by Madame C****, translated from the French. By Miss Gunning. 4 vols. 12mo. 14*s.*

As the events of this novel are laid in Scotland, and the characters are principally Scotch or English, we had at first some doubts of its being a translation. There is, however, a sufficient proportion of ignorance of British manners and customs to remove that suspicion. As a *composition* it ranks far superior to the late productions of either nation, and is throughout so powerfully interesting that we have few scruples in recommending it to that numerous class whose reading is perhaps exclusively confined to novels. The fable, without being grossly improbable, has enough of the marvellous to engage their attention, and the narrative is in general so eloquent as to keep it up without the aid of digressions. Its chief excellence, however, is in the correct delineation of character. The characters of Mrs. Burton, and of Mrs. Fennick may bear a comparison with the best productions of novel-painters. Malvina, too, is admirably sketched and well preserved, while her excess of sensibility, and impatience of temper are judiciously contrived to be the source of her misfortunes. The character of Edmond we do not so much approve. The authoress has evidently bent the force of her genius to this one point, to reconcile his virtues and vices, and engage us to sympathize in his misfortunes. But this we think impossible: much as we admire the skill by which it is contrived, we shall be alternately pleased and disgusted with him, he appears upon the whole to merit our contempt as a profligate whom no circumstances can prevent from indulging his passions. If, indeed, it shall be thought that his being seduced by Mrs. Fennick immediately after his union with Malvina, is highly improbable, which we are almost inclined to think is the case, his character may be retrieved; but as we are bound, even by laws of fiction, to judge from the evidence before us, we are compelled to think him, in this affair, acting the part of a sorry scoundrel.—These objections, therefore, we have thrown out as hints for the consideration of our female readers, with whom Malvina will probably be a very popular work.—The translation would have appeared to more advantage if in the scenes of dialogue, each speaker's share had been distinguished by breaks, or inverted commas. For want of these necessary guides, some parts are confused, and others unintelligible. The language, in all other respects, does credit to Miss Gunning's pen.

The Pride of Ancestry—or, Who is She, 4 vols. 12mo. 16*s.*

The pride of ancestry will not be much hurt by a perusal of this novel, the particular object of which we are at a loss to conjecture. The author has made so equal a distribution of virtues and failings among a very numerous groupe of characters, as to leave her readers equally interested in the fate of all, or, to express our opinion more plainly, equally indifferent and unconcerned as to what becomes either of the heroine or any of her satellites. There is much merit in engaging the passions on the side of an all-accomplished heroine or hero, and perhaps there may be merit also in leaving the reader perfectly undisturbed, and providing that his entertainment be of so insipid a kind as to affect neither head nor heart.

The Rake and the Misanthrope. From the German of Augustus la Fontaine. 2 vols. 12mo. (*) 8*s.*

Amasina, or the American Foundling, 2 vols. 12mo. (*) 9*s.*

Light and Shade, 4 vols. 12mo. 14*s.*

The purpose of this novel appears to be to obviate a frequent objection, that the characters most prominent in such compositions are all light, or all shade, all good or all bad, all God or all devil; and we think it has been accomplished in a considerable measure. There are no personages introduced here so outrageously virtuous as not to partake of the least degree of human frailty, nor any so very bad as not to have some portion of humanity about them. At the same time, we cannot altogether compliment the author on the likenesses her pictures bear to nature. She deals rather too much in fits, fevers, and extravagant passions; and, in deviating from the accustomed construction of novels, she falls into a mode that will not, we apprehend, be approved by those who are judges of such compositions. The first volume contains the history of a young lady apparently well calculated for the heroine, but she turns out to be only the nurse of a heroine born at the close of that volume. During the remaining three the nurse becomes "a good old woman," and the heroine is marriageable and married. This is perhaps uncommon, but it is not new, and it requires the powers of a Fielding to render it interesting, and not improbable. Upon the whole however, the story and its appendages are calculated to promote just sentiments and good morals, and where there is so much room for praise, we shall not quarrel with the lesser faults of order and arrangement.

MISCELLANIES.

A Wreath for the Brow of Youth; containing Instructive and Moral Tales. Calculated to form the youthful heart to the practice of virtue. Dedicated (by Permission) to Her Royal Highness the Princess Charlotte of Wales. 12*s.*

The object of the tales which compose this work, observes the author, is to shew, that there is no happiness but in the exercise of virtue and piety; that there is nothing

but disappointment and misery in the practice of vice." All of them are well calculated to attain this desirable object, as their tendency is to inculcate sentiments of unsophisticated morality. These sentiments are conveyed in that flowing, simple style, that is most likely to attract the attention of youthful minds. The type is exceedingly beautiful, and the embellishments executed with the utmost degree of skill and care, the author rightly judging, that as the impressions made on the minds of children are generally lasting, every thing presented to their early consideration ought to be perfect in its kind. The work is dedicated by Royal Permission to the Princess Charlotte of Wales, whose education is certainly an object of national importance.

An Engraved Genealogical Table of the French Language; in which the different Parts of Speech are shewn at one view, in their proper order, with their dependance on each other, so as to enable the learner to parse his exercise in a very short time; By R. Juigne, M.A. plain 4*s*. coloured 4*s*. 6*d*.

A Concise Treatise on the French Tongue, in which the general principles of that Language are clearly exposed, being an explanation of the above Table, for the use of schools as well as private families; By R. Juigne, M.A. bound 2*s*. 6*d*.

A General Table, shewing at one view, the full conjugation of all French verbs, both regular and irregular, second edition. By R. Juigne, M.A. plain 3*s*. coloured 3*s*. 6*d*.

Address to the Public, from the Society for the Suppression of Vice, instituted in London, 1802. Part the Second. Containing an account of the Proceedings of the Society, from its Original Institution. 2*s*.

The business of this Society is to discover instances of vice, and to bring them to punishment by legal prosecution. An account is given of the discoveries made, and the prosecutions carried on, under the following heads: 1. Profanation of the Lord's day; 2. Blasphemous, licentious, and obscene books and prints; 3. Public houses; 4. Illegal dances; 5. Brothels; 6. Lottery; 7. Private theatres; 8. Cruelty to animals.

Some very extraordinary information is communicated in this pamphlet, which intitles it to no little attention. We intend hereafter to deliver our sentiments at length concerning the nature of this association, and shall suppress the observations we have to offer on the proceedings here stated, till that time.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Lucian.

MR. EDITOR,

There is a writer, of whom every body has heard; of whom the greater part of us, who have pretensions to any degree of classical learning, have read something; but on whom so much attention is not on the whole bestowed as he appears to me to merit. The writer whom I speak of, is *Lucian*:—the purity of whose language, and the elegance of stile which some of his productions display, would be sufficient to recommend him to the notice of those, who make Greek literature their study; independent of his exceeding wit and humour; the excellence of his satire, and the good sense, which every where characterizes his observations of human nature.

There are few productions of human genius, in which the instructive and amusing are so much blended as in the writings of Lucian. If we would obtain a knowledge of the customs and manners of the age in which he lived; or of the heathen mythology, and religious tenets of the ancients; where shall we find them more agreeably displayed to our view. If we would investigate the principles, which actuate the moral sentiments and conduct of mankind, (and this study in a greater or less degree is interesting to us all) where can we find a more able master than Lucian; or where shall we look for portraits of human nature more faithful and illustrative than those which his writings contain?—As a satirist, we must allow that he is not excelled even by Horace, or Juvenal amongst the ancients; or Voltaire, or Swift amongst the moderns. His satire abounds with specimens of the most admirable wit and humour, and is excellent in every other respect. It is levelled not so much at the follies and vices prevalent in a particular period, or, (as it should appear) in particular individuals, as at those, from which human nature is never altogether free; hence we may pronounce it to be of the most liberal kind; and hence it is of that superior order, the force of which can be felt, equally after the lapse of many ages, as at the time which gave birth to it. To this we may add, (what some have I believe been inclined to dispute; though I can scarcely conceive on what grounds,) that the writings of Lucian have on the whole a moral tendency;—and that the productions of our purest moralists cannot conduce in a much greater degree towards setting virtue and the more amiable qualities in a favourable light, and displaying the opposite qualities of human nature in the colours which they merit.

These circumstances alone, and even individually, are sufficient to render the productions of this writer highly interesting. They are however interesting likewise in another point of view;—as having been the foundation of many of the most popular works of their kind, which the present æra of literature has to boast of. The satire, the wit, and humour, and general stile of Lucian's compositions have been a constant object of imitation;—and that, not only in a general way; but even the designs of some particular pieces have been closely copied by modern writers; and others modelled after them.——A very remarkable instance of this occurs in the *Diable boiteux* of *Le Sage*;—the fable and general design of which bear a resemblance to that of the "Ενυπνιαστης;" as does the stile and manner, which the author has adopted, to the general stile of Lucian, too remarkable to be considered as purely accidental. As in the latter *Mercury* undertakes to give to *Charon* an insight into "Οποιόν ἐστι τὸ ἐν τῷ ζῆν, καὶ ἃ πράττουσιν οἱ ἄνθρωποι ἐν αὐτῷ;"—"what is the nature of life; and what are the pursuits which men follow in it;" so likewise in the former does *Asmodeus* undertake to do by his friend *Don Cleofas*. The personages in both cases ascend to a height, from whence (a power of viewing, as well as hearing whatever passes, even through walls and roofs of buildings, being acquired by supernatural means) they proceed to make their observations on what occurs below. The two pieces in question diffe-

principally in this respect. The Επισκοτουντες offers a more enlarged and extensive view of human nature, and the state of mankind, than the *diable boiteux*. The follies, the errours, and the vanities of man, and the uncertainty of his lot, are equally the subject of both:—but in the former these are considered in a more general and abstract manner; and are not so much illustrated by particular examples as in the latter. Lucian's stile in the instance before us differs somewhat from that, which is usual with him;—his satire is on the whole (though not uniformly) of a more serious and sober cast; and has less of humour, though it is not on that account less excellent, than in his other productions. Le Sage in his *Devil on Two Sticks*, (as the title has been happily translated) has clearly borrowed his design from that of the Επισκοτουντες; but he seems to have aimed at imitating rather the general stile of Lucian, than that which he has adopted in this particular instance.

The form of dialogue, in which observations may be inculcated in a manner more pleasing; and without the stiffness and formality of a regular treatise; and which is more favourable for the employment of satire, or the drawing portraits of human nature, has been adopted from Lucian by many of our ablest modern writers. We might fill a page were we to enumerate the names of all those who have written dialogues on the plan which he has pursued; but among the most remarkable of them we may notice the venerable *Archbishop of Cambray*, the author of Telemachus, whose dialogues of the dead, as well as those of *Lyttleton* and *Swift*, are evident, and indeed professed imitations of Lucian. Not less so are the dialogues between the chimneys, annexed to the work which we have just noticed, the *Diable boiteux*; and to these we may add the elegant, though but little read, *Colloquia familiaria* of *Erasmus*.

The Αληθης ιστορια is one of those few of Lucian's productions, the particular satire and allusions of which are at the present day in great measure difficult to be comprehended. We may however manifestly discern in it the origin of the popular travels of *Lemuel Gulliver*, and several other compositions, which modern writers have given us on a similar plan.

The Νεκυομαντεια may be considered as the foundation of Fielding's journey from this world to the next; a work of little less spirit than the original: and lastly we may notice the "Τιμων ή μισανθρωπος," the fable of which has been transformed by the genius of Shakspeare into a tragedy, which if not the best, and most interesting, is certainly far from being the most uninteresting of his dramatic writings.

Much more might well be said on this subject; it is not however my intention to enter into any further disquisition of it. If those few observations, which I have made, should have any effect in inducing my readers to pay more attention to the writer to whom they relate, I shall consider my pains as having been far from thrown away, but as well bestowed in gaining something in the cause of literature. E. R.

2

Explanation of a Passage in Petronius, hitherto not understood by any Commentator.

DOCTORIS INSTITUTIO.

Sed sive armigeræ rident Tritonidis arces,
Seu Lacedæmonio tellus habitata colono,
Sirenumque domus, det primos versibus annos,
Mæoniumque bibat felici pectore fontem.
Mox et Socratico plenus grege, mutet habenas
Liber, et ingentis quatiat Demosthenis arma;
Hinc Romana manus circumfluat, et modo Graio
Exonerata sono mutet suffusa saporem;
Interdum subducta foro det pagina cursum,
Et fortuna sonet celeri distincta meatu:
Dent epulas, et bella truci memorata canore,
Grandiaque indomiti Ciceronis verba minetur.
His animum succinge bonis, sic flumine largo
Plenus, Pierio defendes pectore verba.

Petronii, cap. V. p. 22, ed. 4to.

What has been said on this passage, which ought to be engraved in letters of gold in every school of the kingdom, professing to teach classical learning, may be seen in the 4to. edition of Petronius, by Peter Burman, in the year 1709.

The first six lines in which the poetry of Homer, the philosophy of Socrates, and the eloquence of Demosthenes are proposed as early objects of imitation, stand in need of little comment or illustration, to make their meaning perfectly clear to any student in Latin verse. The 7th and 8th are not so perspicuous. The critics read,

——— "oraque Graio
Exornata sono"———

which is as hard to be understood as the text itself. The meaning of the lines, as they stand, is this, as I humbly conceive; after the Grecian let the Roman authors be read, and although they should want the full pronunciation (os rotundum of Horace) they may be ameliorated, and improved in taste by the flavor of the Greek.—"Mutet saporem suffusa scilicet saporae Græco." What follows has been still less understood:

"Interdum subducta foro det pagina cursum,
Et fortuna sonet celeri distincta meatu."

The reasons are, that pagina has never been rightly interpreted, and fortuna is corrupt. When these words shall be corrected and explained, the true sense will probably appear. The commentators, one and all, have been driven to extremities to give a colour to the egregious nonsense that the text at present is made to exhibit; but no meaning was to be had but by substituting cortina for fortuna, and then discincta became distincta, and destricta, and so on, with 'confusion worse confounded.'

Now if one might be allowed a conjecture we should read,

"Et forte una sonet celeri discincta meatu."

and construe it thus, 'sometimes let the active scene disengaged from the business of the Forum have its course; and sometimes let one scene (sonet) be heard, or represented without the quick movements.' The word pagina on the peculiar interpretation of which the sense of the passage so much depends, means

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comædia, as appears from Petronius himself, cap. 80, p. 400:

"Mox ubi ridendas inclusit pagina partes,
Vera redit facies, dissimulata perit."

Pagina is scena, see Ruffinus de metris quoted by Wouveren, p. 400. Petronii. If then this be the case, cursus and celer meatus have a determined sense, and the first describes the comædia motoria, and the second the comædia stataria, celeri distincta meatu, or discincta, which last we have in the prologue to the Self-tormentor:

"Adeste æquo animo, date potestatem, mihi
Statariam agere ut liceat per silentium."

The rest is easy, if you place the last verse but two after the sixth, where it fairly belongs. S.

Greek Manuscripts.

Φιλοσόφων πλῆθος ἀδύνατον γινάσθαι: ταραχοφόροι μὲν γὰρ πολλοὶ φησι βάκχοι δὲ τε Παῦρος τοῦτο δὲ καὶ ὁ ἱμὸς φιλάνθρωπος καὶ δεσπότης ἔφη Χριστός· Πολλοὶ γὰρ εἶπε κλητοὶ, ὀλίγοι δὲ ἐκλεκτοί· καὶ Ἀνάχαρσιν δὲ τὸν σκύθην φιλόσοφον γεγενῆσθαι φασὶν· οὕτω δὲ αὐτὸν ὁ τῆς φιλοσοφίας ἐπρπόλησεν ἔρως, ὡς ὀνομαστότατον γενέσθαι καὶ πᾶσιν ἀειδίμιον· ὃ γὰρ μόνον ἐγρηγόρως πρὸς τὰ τῆς ψυχῆς ἠγωνίζετο πάθη, ἀλλὰ καὶ καθεύδων τὰ τῆς ἐγκρατείας παρεδήλου σημεῖα· ἐώθει γὰρ τῇ λαιᾷ μὲν, τὰ ἀιδοῖα κατέχειν· τῇ δεξιᾷ δὲ τὰ χείλη συνέχειν. ταυτη πηδλῶν (fors· ταύτη ἐπεδήλων) ὡς πολλῷ μειζων ἐστὶν ἡ ἀγωνία τῆς γλώττης· καὶ μείζονος ἐπικουρίας ἐις ἀσφάλειαν δεῖται·

Mr. Editor,

The anecdote prefixed of Anacharsis the Scythian, was copied from one of Mr. Clarke's manuscripts. The manuscript is called *the Eclogue of Theodosius the Monk*, and consists of a volume of miscellanies. The character is ancient, having neither the iota post-script, nor subscript.—The Beta is also always written like a (μ)as in the word ωάκχοι. The collection is chiefly theological. Professor Porson has given a caution to students to beware mistaking the united letters (α) for an alpha. In this manuscript the necessity of his caution is very strikingly exemplified. The word Ὅμηρος is written Ὁμηρ α and several other instances of the same nature appear in the work, where a false legend would be of more consequence.

The volume concludes with an epistle from Peter, patriarch of Antioch, προς τὸν αρχιεπισκοτον βενετιᾶς περι ἀζυμων.

Some fairly written Greek in the Isle of Cos, lying in a grocer's shop; had been copied, as Mr. Clarke was informed, by the son of the grocer, then a student in the monastery of Patmos, from ancient manuscripts in the library there. This intelligence induced him to go to Patmos, after the conquest of Egypt in the year 1801.—A vaulted book room was shewn him as the library, by the monks. It contained above 100 volumes of Greek manuscripts thrown together in great confusion; the manuscripts having been always discarded upon the introduction of printed books; and the shelves gradually cleared of them to make room for their successors. The President and Treasurer of the monastery attended—and they were so ignorant as to shew a printed copy of Livy, and ask what language it contained. They allowed Mr. Clarke to bring from thence the *Plato*: a lexicon of St. Cyril; and two volumes with the ancient Greek musical notes—namely the Iambics of Gregory Nazianzenus and the Psalms of David.

Rhadegunda.

Ghost of Banquo.

Mr. Editor,

The dismission of this personage from the tragedy of Macbeth, was first suggested by Lloyd in his Poem called the Actor, in these lines:

"When chilling horrors shake the affrighted king,
And guilt torments him with her scorpion sting,
When keenest feelings at his bosom pull
And Fancy tells him that the seat is full
Why need the Ghost usurp the monarch's place
To frighten children with his mealy face?
The king alone should form the phantom there
And talk, and tremble at the vacant chair."

He then goes on to censure the appearance of the ghosts of Jaffier and Pierre, to Belvidera, and in consequence of this, these ghosts were laid by Garrick, but the ghost of Banquo still kept his station till he was laid by the wand of the mighty magician Kemble.

Now though I have a due sense of the dramatic merits of Kemble, and allow that in some parts he is very great, I can no more compare his talents as an actor with those of Garrick, than I can those of Otway with Shakspeare as a Poet.

The Ghosts in Venice Preserved, notwithstanding the original custom of the theatre, and the stage-direction in all the first editions of the play, are obviously the creation of Belvidera's frenzy, and, to me, the Ghost of Banquo is as obviously intended by the Poet to be really a phantom that did appear to Macbeth alone, as the Ghost of Hamlet does in the closet scene, though he is only seen and heard by his son.

Before I bring any other proof, let me ask why, in a play which abounds with supernatural beings, and in whose Dramatis Personæ we find 'Hecate and three Witches,' 'the Ghost of Banquo and other Apparitions.' Poor Banquo should alone be omitted, and only in this scene, for in another he does make his appearance and tolerably well accompanied.

But the context seems to prove beyond a doubt that the Poet actually meant that it should be the real appearance of the Ghost, to haunt the festive hour of the bloody usurper, and not a phantom conjured up by his own guilty conscience; for the first observation that Macbeth makes is, that 'the table is full,' that is, he saw there was no place reserved for him; but did not distinguish the person who occupied that particular seat, which is strongly confirmed by his answer to *Lenox*.

Lenox. 'There is a place reserved.'

Macbeth. 'Where?' and on Lenox saying 'Here my lord' and pointing to it, he first perceives the Ghost and betrays his agitation.

Macbeth besides is not of a character to be frighted by false fire, and though sanguine in hope, he does not lose his recollection and presence of mind, when haunted by visions of terror. When in the utmost

agony of mind just before the murder of the King, his heated imagination pictures the "air drawn dagger" he is at the same time sensible that it is only the work of his imagination, and that in reality "there is no such thing." Therefore I think we may take Macbeth's own word for it, that there was such a thing as the Ghost of Banquo, for when Lady Macbeth says of the Ghost, that 'it is the very painting of his fear the air-drawn dagger' he is fully sensible of the difference, and says firmly, 'If I stand here I saw him' If a part of Shakspeare's drama which was retained by that actor who was the best representer of Shakspeare's character, and as much superior to himself in those characters, as he was to all competition in most others, is to be omitted because some performer thinks his eye betrays more terror when 'bent on vacancy,' Heaven knows what work may be made with the beauties of the bard of our idolatry, by the caprice of future players.

As to the 'mealy face' and the trap-door, they might easily be avoided by the vacant seat of Macbeth being placed near the Queen and against the scene, where the form might appear and disappear in that faint kind of shade with which it appears with the eight other ghosts in the cavern scene.

I would therefore in future advise Mr. Kemble to restore the Ghost of Banquo and confine his power of laying spirits to those in Richard the Third, (as they are avowedly the representation of what passes in the dreams of the king,) with the dancing angels in Henry VIII. Y.

Reply to Detector.

Mr. Editor,

In answer to a letter in your Journal of January 16th in which a person, under the signature of Detector, is so deficient in candour as to pass judgment on the whole of a work, from the perusal of a few partial extracts, and to assert that the author of *Paris as it Was, and as it Is*, has not hesitated to mingle fiction with his narratives, I have to observe that Detector is in an error to suppose the story of Mr. B. and his *fac-simile* concubines to be taken from an English novel. It was communicated to the author by a French gentleman, who affirmed that such a character had actually existed in Paris. The same person had communicated it to Mercier, who has likewise inserted it in his first *Tableau de Paris*.

With respect to the suspicions of Detector, they can have little or no weight with the author in question, in justice to whom, I must however declare, that so far from his work being apocryphal, perhaps no production, at all similar, was ever less of that description. On the contrary, it is founded on original documents communicated by persons who, from their acknowledged superiority in their respective professions and employments, were best calculated to furnish the most authentic information. These documents I have seen in the hands of the publishers, who, for the same reason, can also vouch for the truth of this assertion. I am, Sir, Your's &c.

Veritas.

SCIENCE.

On Basalts.

The controversy that prevails among mineralogists relative to the origin of Basalts, whether aqueous or igneous, is well-known in the scientific world. The opinion of the volcanic origin of Basalts, or figurated trap, was the first received, and the reasons and observations upon which it is founded are the best known. This opinion has long been adopted and perhaps often without sufficient grounds to support it. On no subject have the minds of philosophers been more exposed to the influence of delusion than in tracing the effects of volcanoes. These tremendous phenomena have even wrapped up the imaginations of some of the ablest mineralogists to a degree scarcely credible, as appears from the instance of Mr. *Macie*, a gentleman of extensive mineralogical knowledge, and author of several treatises on volcanoes, of whom it is said that in travelling through Scotland, he exclaimed at the sight of every black stone he met with, that it was *lava*. Though the contest relative to the origin of Basalts, is still carried on with unabated vigour, it is not our intention here to recapitulate fully the reasons urged either on one side or the other. It is sufficiently obvious however, that in the progress of the mineralogical branch of Natural History, the arguments of the partizans of the aqueous origin of Basalts continually multiply in number, and increase in strength. A great number of stones have been distinguished by the name of Basalt, and this has often occasioned much confusion and uncertainty in the descriptions of different mineralogists respecting this fossil. But what is most commonly known as the perfect Basalt, are those grand masses of Basaltic stone, which, for the most part, are divided into prismatic pillars. This prismatic form was long regarded as the effect of fusion, and consequently as a proof of the volcanic origin of Basalts. The reverse however, has been found to be the case. The great object of the supporters of the igneous origin of Basalts has been to identify this rock with compact Lava, to which it bears a strong resemblance in its outward form. But a regularity prevails in Basaltic pillars, which is never found in Lava, and which, indeed, it appears morally impossible should be found in those stones which have been produced from the substances melted by volcanic fire. The nature of this agent precludes all idea of regularity, and accordingly volcanic substances are constantly disposed in irregular masses. Their form is, indeed, sometimes prismatic, but the prisms are entirely different from those of Basalts, which bear a close resemblance to the prisms found to belong to rocks formed under the water, such as the *porphyry* and *steatitic rocks*, mentioned by Werner. This further proves the fallacy of the notion that Basalts are lava which had flowed into the sea, and had there taken the prismatic form. Observation leads to a conclusion directly opposite, for the lava which has flowed into the sea from Mount Vesuvius has assumed no prismatic division. Spalanzani also examined with attention the lava of the island of Ischia, which had flowed into the sea, but discovered in them nothing like a prismatic form. M. Hubert

made the same observation upon a current of lava which flowed into the sea from a volcano in the Isle of Bourbon. Experience has shewn that water fritters lava to pieces rather than divides it into prisms. The notion of the igneous production of Basalts appears evidently to have originated from the discovery of Basalts in ancient volcanoes now extinct, made by Guethard in the year 1751. This discovery originated from comparing the fossils found in certain mountains with those of Vesuvius, and Basalts were found amongst pouzzolana, pumice, tufas, and volcanic ashes. This circumstance must be supposed to have arisen from Basalts having existed in those mountains previous to the breaking out of the volcanoes. Doctor Richardson observes that those Basalts which are found in places where volcanoes certainly existed, as in Sicily and the neighbouring islands, and in Auvergne, &c. &c. must have been there before the volcanoes appeared. They have been, adds he, surrounded with lava, and are rather the soil proper for the formation of volcanoes, than a soil formed by those agents. That this is the fact is clearly proved by the circumstance of Basalts being found lying upon, and surrounded by, substances that certainly never were discomposed by the action of fire. The regularity of several Basaltic beds is moreover totally incompatible with the supposition that they could ever have been produced by volcanic agency. Another fact has puzzled the partizans of the igneous origin of Basalts, which is, that no prismatic Basalts are produced by any of the volcanoes now known. They rest contented with the confession that volcanoes have now lost the power of producing them, but from what cause this proceeds, they have not even attempted to explain. The natural conclusion, however, must strike every unprejudiced person, which obviously is, that Basalts never were produced by volcanoes. Granite is said, by the supporters of the volcanic production of Basalts, to be the original stone from which they are formed, but here again they are unfortunate, as it has been ascertained by observation, that the heat of volcanoes is not so intense as to melt substances much more fusible than Granite. But the chemical analysis of Basalts has shewn that the substances of which they are composed, are such as generally belong to those stones which are indubitably of aqueous origin. Bergman and Kennedy were aware of this circumstance, and the justness of their ideas upon the subject was confirmed by Klaproth to whom science is so much indebted for his excellent analyses. He having analyzed a piece of prismatic basalt found the following substances, in the proportions marked below.

Silex	44.50
Alumine	16.75
Iron	20.00
Muriatic Acid	0.05
Soda	2.60
Water	2.00
Oxide of Manganese	0.2
Lime	9.50
Magnesia	2.23
Pyrites	2.23

With a small proportion of Carbon.

Several of the same chemical properties are also found in the basalts and the grunstein of Werner. The basalts of Saxony examined and described with care and accuracy by Daubisson appear under circumstances that render it impossible to ascribe their formation to volcanic fires. They cover in isolated beds the greater part of the sharp points of the higher grounds of that country. Whence could these currents of lava come, supposing them for a moment to be lava? It cannot be supposed that each mountain is a separate volcano, for in that case it must also be supposed that the lava rested upon the summit, precisely where it would meet with the greatest degree of resistance, which never happens. The basis of these beds of basalts would also present irregular and scattered rocks, whereas in fact the greatest regularity prevails in the beds of these mountains, though often formed into a multitude of galleries: the numerous ridges are connected and regular; no remarkable cavity is to be found in their interior, no trace of a crater on their tops. If we should suppose that these mountains have been overrun by a torrent of basaltic lava, the question immediately occurs, from whence could this lava have flowed in quantities so immense as to fill up the vallies and cover the mountains? for it cannot be imagined that an ordinary current descending into the valley could have risen above the summits of the several mountains without having first filled up the plains. Besides the currents of lava, of whatever nature they may be, have a peculiar character which is never found in basalts. Lava neither is nor can be disposed in parallel beds, for the means by which they are produced and the mode of their formation must prove irresistible obstacles. Basalts on the contrary are often disposed in parallel layers. The masses of lava of the same current, and especially those of several currents vary extremely in density and thickness. The basaltic beds are on the contrary of an equal density in each layer and often in a great number of layers. The basalts of different countries and chiefly those of Saxony, are placed upon rocks where they are covered with substances of undoubted aqueous origin. These basalts may be often perceived uniting themselves so closely and gradually with such substances, that it is sometimes impossible to assign the limits where the basalts end, and the grunten, or wacken begins. These are in fact the observations of Werner and Daubisson on the basalts of Saxony; and Dolomieu has given a similar account of those of Ethiopia. Several other facts have been discovered which tend to prove that the prismatic basalts are of aqueous origin. Such as the regular beds of substances which have never been altered, placed under them; the beds of carbonated lime interposed between two layers of basalt, and crystals belonging to mineral substances extremely fusible dispersed through this rock, without having undergone any material change. As a vast variety of stones have received the name of basalts and as it is often very difficult to distinguish the perfect from the imperfect, it is not impossible that the dispute may in fact be only about words. Many of those stones described as basalts may be really of igneous origin, and the whole controversy may therefore have arisen from confounding these with the perfect basalts whose origin is undoubtedly aqueous.

H.

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MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° III.

O quam te memorem, virgo! Virgil.
How shall I name your talents, O ye fair!

In my round of morning visits, a few days ago, I chanced to call on a lady in the neighbourhood of Berkeley-square, who has indeed been a grandmother for two years, although she is careful that her looks do not betray the secret even to her most intimate acquaintance. On entering the parlour, I was somewhat surprized to observe her maiden sister, who usually runs up to me and receives me with great familiarity, drop a formal curtsey at a distance, and ask me, with a foolish simper, how I did. I have seldom been much vexed at the little humours and caprices of the female character for the last twenty years; indeed they appear in my eyes like the changing colours and flashes of the Aurora Borealis, which form the chief attraction and beauty of that splendid meteor: but I am a batchelor. I should certainly not have carried the remembrance of miss Cornelia's behaviour on the present occasion, beyond the crossing of Piccadilly, had it not been recalled to mind by the following note, which was brought me the same evening by the two-penny post:—

"SIR,

"I am conscious that you had just cause to be offended with my behaviour this morning; but how could I avoid looking aukward, after you have told the thing so publicly? It was a mere frolic my answering the advertisement: nor can I conceive how you should possibly come to find me out. My picture cannot have the least resemblance, as our pew stands in the darkest and most uncomfortable part of Brunswick chapel, and the painter could not possibly catch my features from a mere side view in the passages. We have now got a pew in Quebec Chapel, near the altar, where one might be seen by an artist to much better advantage. If you are determined to shew my picture, it is pity you did not delay having it taken till now, as one does not care to have one's face exposed in a mangled state to the world. If you should happen to call at our house to-morrow or Thursday about three, the hour when I am usually at home, I hope you will excuse a little attention to behaviour on my part; for it is impossible that I can feel altogether easy, although I know I am in the hands of a gentleman. As I said, the reply to the advertisement was a mere frolic; yet every article of age, fortune, &c. is perfectly correct. It was drawn up quite in haste, for I never apply to Mr. C. R. of Fleet-street. Who could have imagined *you* had any thoughts of marriage?

Your obedient Servant,

Tuesday Morning. CORNELIA.

My fair readers will find no mystery in this note; unless such of them, as are not accustomed to read the advertisements in the morning papers, may have some difficulty in comprehending one sentence. They must know that this Mr. C. R. who is here alluded to, is one of those benevolent gentlemen who offer their services, by the public papers to enamoured youths and love-sick virgins. He informs us, by an advertisement in the Morning Herald, with, *In Matrimony* as a motto in large letters at the top, that in the Epistolary Correspondences he offers to carry on, "he presumes he could use a strain the best adapted to display the feelings of the heart, and obtain its object." This sentence is surely sufficient to prove he understands the materials he has to work upon; and I therefore seriously recommend him to all my young friends of both sexes. I could fill several numbers with instances of the great success which has attended the exertions of this gentleman and some others of the same profession. Every one knows the story of the footman out of place, who lately persuaded a young heiress to elope with him from a fashionable boarding-school, by means of his pathetic and eloquent letters, which made her believe that he was one of the finest gentlemen and completest scholars in all London; although she discovered, on their return from Gretna-Green, that he could scarcely read the landlord's bills. Poor Tom Addlehead, the great broker's son of Cornhill, was not so fortunate as the footman in his matrimonial adventure; for though he had understood from the lady's letters that he was eloping with a woman of high family and fortune, yet at the dinner which he gave to his young friends, a short time after his marriage, several of them were not a little surprized to discover in his wife, their old acquaintance the little black-eyed milliner of Brooke-street.

I could mention, by name and sirname, several others who have obtained their wives, and more who have carried off their mistresses, by the assistance of the literary gentleman above alluded to; but I shall defer giving this catalogue to the public, till such time as I perceive, by a repetition of the advertisements, that these gentlemen do not meet with the degree of encouragement which is so justly due to their merits.

There is one omission which I would advise Mr. C. R. to supply in his future advertisements. It is not fair to overlook his chief patrons, to whom indeed he is principally indebted for the success of his endeavours. I mean those parents and guardians who do no not employ any gruff, old-fashioned principles, or formal plans of study, to harden the feelings of the youthful heart against the moving strains of assisting literary gentlemen. The education of our young ladies is conducted in a manner particularly worthy of commendation; for the essentials, I mean those accomplishments which any one would think of inquiring after, are carefully attended to; while the heart and the understanding are left to nature, to chance, to Mr. C. R, or to any one who chuses to concern himself with such matters.

I shall certainly take an opportunity of taxing Miss Cornelia with doing me extreme injustice, by her imaginations that I had no thoughts of matrimony, in an age when young ladies are so well fitted by their education to make excellent wives. The improvements which have taken place in the education of the sex, during the last fifty years, are indeed worthy of admiration. To the piano-forte, at which our young ladies spend one full half of their hours of industry, I, and all other intended husbands, have particular obligations. I have for some time meditated a treatise

to shew how admirably this instrument, as well as the harp, lute, tambourine, and other attendants of the music-room, are calculated to make a good nurse, a notable superintendant of the comforts of the table, and an expert manager of a family. It may indeed be questioned, by those who understand no better, whether a man, who understands nothing of music beyond a simple song or air, will find his domestic comforts much increased, by a daily treat of the most approved intricacies of Haydn and Paësiello. Some people even affirm that the odd domestic creature, my friend Jack Homely, has at last begun to take nightly refuge in a coffee-house, while his wife, who is a most excellent performer, is labouring to keep pace with the composers who furnish Kelly's Musical Saloon.

There is nothing more laudable than the perseverance and resignation to which young ladies become accustomed from their musical studies; for it is an accomplishment they all labour to acquire, whether they have a taste and an ear for it or not. I know a young lady, who spent four or five hours a day at her pianoforte, for the first sixteen years of her life; and yet, at the end of that period, did not know a sharp from a flat, nor think it at all amiss to be a full octave out of tune.

There are indeed some husbands of my acquaintance who are no enemies to music, and yet are silly enough to wish that so very much of their wives' youth had not been spent in the acquisition of this accomplishment. They seem to have found out, after marriage, that the conversation of a music-master is not the most refined or improving; and that no great fund of instruction is to be derived from a sonata or a waltz. There are husbands (although this has been doubted) who would love to enjoy their leisure hours amidst the sweets of domestic conversation; and be delighted to see guests attracted and allured to prolong their stay, by the fascinating manners of their wives. But the expectation is unreasonable; for how could time to acquire the requisites for these hum-drum exhibitions be possibly spared from the acquisition of *ta'ents*? Besides, where would be the use of such things, while the card-table is ever at hand to fill up that strange blank, which nature has left between the hours of dinner and repose?

I must not pass over another boarding-school accomplishment, which is yet more meritorious than music, as it is still more confined to the individual, and attracts less of the notice and applause of others. I mean drawing, an accomplishment which I have observed particularly prevalent among those city-nymphs, who have caught their fancy for landscape-painting from the groves and water-fall at Vauxhall; and have formed their ideas of deep and winding vallies, from the curvatures of Bucklersbury and Rosemary-lane. The drawing-master however, possesses much consideration in every boarding-school; and generally occupies a large portion of the time of the young ladies, in a manner which they certainly find extremely profitable in after-life, although, so churlish or envious are the male sex, that I have heard very few husbands particularly loud in praise of their wives' talent in that way. Mrs. Tinto, who excels in oil-colours, finds however her favourite pursuit vastly useful in relieving her from many family cares and inconveniencies; for her husband, who abhors the smell of oil, never ventures to approach her painting-closet; and the tiresome things her children, who might destroy her conceptions, and perhaps tamper with the brushes, are carefully excluded from that sanctuary.

I have heard some grave persons affirm that what with music, drawing, dancing, and other boarding-school improvements, our young women know little more of books and useful accomplishments than the fair damsels of Kamschatka. This however is very unjust; for I know several young ladies, who are great readers, and Mr. Hookham, I dare say, could inform me of many more. Their taste in reading, being left entirely to themselves, gives them an opportunity of exercising their discretion; and as a proof that they make a considerate choice, I have observed that their taste seldom alters in after-life. I happened to see a proof of this a few days ago, on calling at my friend Buzzard's. On entering the parlour, I found the old lady his wife, placed in one corner of the sopha, with a flood of tears trickling down the mazy furrows of her cheeks; while her pretty black-eyed daughter lay in the opposite corner, covering her face with her handkerchief, and sobbing aloud. I began to be alarmed, imagining that some serious misfortune had befallen the family. I was however soon undeceived by the old lady, who pointed to a dog's-eared volume, which had just been dropped on the sopha, and from which on opening it, I discovered that my fair friends had been bewailing the hero of a newly translated German novel.

There is one essential article in the education of our young ladies, which I cannot, without much wrath, hear any person find fault with; for I consider the defence of it as a common cause with all *old Nabobs*. It has long been an observation that no prudent mother omits to teach her daughter to choose a husband for those *solid qualities* which will not be altogether lost to her, after time and even death have interfered with her happiness. In our age these lessons are very considerably improved upon; for a young woman is now taught to be active, and look out for these blessings, wherever they are to be found, instead of unreasonably waiting till they should drop into her lap. I was delighted, during the last spring season at Bath, to observe the industry of a young creature, who had determined to dispose of a very pretty person, and ten thousand pounds, to the best advantage. That nothing of real importance might escape her, she contrived to attract every new face that entered the rooms, into her circle. If she found upon enquiry that any new-comer was worth looking after, she laid violent hands upon his heart without delay; and held him fast till she could examine properly into the *solidity* of his qualifications. The poor thing was indeed rather unfortunate that Season in spite of all her precautions; for out of three and twenty, that she allowed to think themselves upon a good footing with her, she was obliged, on further discoveries into the state of their rent-roll, to throw the whole off to a very respectable

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distance. Among these were four, whom public report had exalted into a general, an expectant bishop, and two nabobs with vast fortunes newly arrived from the East; but upon a more minute enquiry these gentlemen unfortunately turned out to be no other than a subaltern of the guards, a Shropshire curate, a junior writer returned from Madrass for the benefit of his health, and *the Nabob* of Spring Gardens whom every body knows.

The art of hunting good matches, is certainly a very great improvement in female education, as it calls the powers of the sex into activity, and frees them from an infinite number of uneasinesses and embarrassments which attended their former hesitating and blushing timidity. There is now something bold and spirited in the confident looks and assured air of our young ladies; and a little cherub now feels no apprehension in attracting a circle round her in the middle of a drawing room, and parrying the half-dozen remarks of as many *hats with gentlemen* as can approach her. There is one circumstance indeed to which, as an intended husband, I am not quite reconciled: Although a young lady keeps her eye steadily fixed on the main chance, yet she is in nowise debarred from lending her ear to every one who has got a fine thing to say to her; and this innocent freedom is in no degree curtailed after marriage. The consequence of which is that the person who supplies her with a sirname and a fortune, is looked upon as a necessary appendage to the household; while every thing delightful and flattering is expected from the lips of these agreeable fellows who single her out as the object of their attentions.

I had intended to prove, beyond all dispute, the excellence of our present plans of female education, by disclosing those very ingenious devices for spending a forenoon and an evening, which form the particular study of every lady of taste or fashion; but as I am afraid the praises I have already lavished on the sex may spread a report among my friends that I am actually on the eve of marriage, I must reserve these topics to a future opportunity.

I know the ladies whom every body, and those whom nobody knows will be apt to dispute which of them is most properly entitled to the praises I have bestowed. To prevent any quarrrel, I must observe that human Society resembles the atmosphere which surrounds us. That portion of the air which immediately touches the surface of the earth, is often too impure and gross for supporting animal life in health and vigour. As you ascend, it gradually becomes more pure, more pleasant, and more capable of giving elasticity to the spirits, and energy to the bodily powers. Beyond a certain elevation, however, the vital qualities of the atmosphere diminish; it becomes thin and incapable of affording the means of respiration. Even so it is with Society. The better principles and finer faculties of the human mind are unable to exert themselves amidst that coarse and corrupted class which occupies the lowest place of a community; nor are they able to find the means of supporting their existence amidst that dissipated, languid, and enervated race which are stationed at the other extreme. It is in the middle class that the energy, and dignity, and marked features of the human character are found; and as it is from this class that I have selected the accomplishments which distinguish the young females of our age, one may from thence guess at the qualifications of the higher and the lower.

POLITICS.

Change of Ministers.

WHEN complaints are so general of the weakness and incapacity of the present administration, the question has been frequently asked, how happens it that they retain their situations with so little trouble? Of the persons who either speak or write concerning public affairs, the number is very small indeed, who venture to ascribe great abilities to his Majesty's present ministers. There is not perhaps an individual in the nation who does not look upon various other public characters as greatly surpassing the members of the present administration in capacity. It cannot be disguised, even by those whose fortune is connected with the power of the present ministers, that they are looked upon by a great part of the people as men of of very ordinary talents; while men believed to possess the most eminent endowments stand competitors for their places.

Along with this general sentiment it is the universal conviction that Great Britain at this moment more needs an able conductor than at any other period during a great portion of her history. At no period was the situation of Great Britain more critical than at present it is represented to be, chiefly by the ministers themselves. Our dangers are talked of as unexampled. A nation whose power is extended so far as to render her an object of terror to all Europe, who has intimidated or reconciled all her other enemies, has concentrated her whole force against us, and threatens us with complete destruction. The energies of this nation have been called forth to meet this danger in a manner unprecedented, the people have been summoned in a mass to prepare to shed their blood, and expend their treasure, in defence of every thing dear to them; and have obeyed the summons with a zeal, a spirit, and an alacrity, which place their patriotism on a level with that of the most celebrated people who ever existed.

In this state of things, when every man throughout the nation manifests such a disposition to make sacrifices and efforts, it is asked again, and again, and by every description of persons, what is the reason that corresponding efforts are not made at the fountain-head? When the best energies of the nation are called for and produced to answer all the subordinate demands of the great occasion, why are the best energies of the nation not employed in the first, and great department, in maturing the counsels, and perfecting the plans? If things are not right here, it is to little purpose that the most extraordinary means of great atchievements are provided elsewhere. Why then are not arrangements made to give some kind of satisfaction in this respect? When, it has been said, at what preceding period of our history would the country have submitted to be governed by a race of men, in the opinion of the whole nation, subaltern in

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every quality of intellect, when the greatest characters, of whom a choice might be made, were before the public. Were the nation in that state of tranquillity in which little detriment to its interests were to be apprehended from a feeble administration, still it were a disgrace to its spirit and its taste, to let persons of mean qualities ingross the management of its high affairs. What becomes of the grateful feelings of national superiority, in the most flattering of all respects, that of intellectual qualities, when the men most in the eyes of foreigners, the men with whom eminent foreign characters are most called upon to measure their strength, appear worthy of a very limited kind of respect to every mortal that hears them speak, or observes them act? Not to mention the national misfortune which accrues from discouraging the acquirement of great political endowments, when the meanest are allowed to run away with the prize, gratification of national vanity, should, it is every day repeated, make the people anxious to see men great at the helm of affairs. A parish is vain of a curate of more than ordinary capacity; and feels humbled if a blockhead is put in his place.

When, however, to these considerations it is added that this is perhaps the most exigent moment in the history of our country, a moment requiring the most calm and penetrating wisdom, the direction of a mind capable of being hurried away neither by regard for popular opinion nor by hatred of it, a mind thoroughly acquainted with the dangers which beset the country, both from the situation of its enemies and of its own internal circumstances; a mind capable of looking into futurity in a state of things greatly unlike to any which has preceded it; a mind equally fit for manly resistance, and gentle conciliation; a mind thoroughly acquainted with the true spirit of the times; a mind both of the greatest strength and the greatest delicacy; a mind fit to discern the means of impairing most strongly the power of the enemy, and of doing so with the least injury to the resources of this country; a mind habituated to the deepest philosophy, as well as trained in the observation and management of affairs. If the most complete combination of great qualities which ever adorned any of the human race, it is acknowledged would be hardly competent to preside over the affairs of Great Britain, at this eventful moment, when the freedom, the virtue, the knowledge, the happiness of the civilized world for ages yet unborn are entrusted to her sole protection, how does it happen that the nation acquiesces so fully in the government of persons confessedly inferior to many who might be procured? How does it not happen, as on former occasions, that addresses are poured in from all quarters, recommending a change of ministers? What strange alteration has happened in the nation, that formerly it expressed its opinions of ministers with so much readiness; and now, when the occasion is greater than ever, it does so with so much backwardness?

Among the various reasons which may be assigned for this circumstance, there is one which we have much more frequently observed to be felt than expressed; to the influence of which people have yielded, while hitherto they have been scarcely sensible themselves under what motive they were acting. This reason is the state of parties. If the present ministers are thrown out of power, the nation knows not to whom it shall apply with better hopes. In spite of the interested applauses bestowed in such excess for a number of years upon Mr. Pitt's administration, it now undeniably appears that it was not agreeable to the great bulk of the nation, and that the nation does not wish to see him and his colleagues reinstated in power. The maxims of government openly avowed, and passionately maintained by some of the leading members of that administration, as Lord Grenville and Mr. Windham, were so little favourable to freedom, as justly to render them unpopular and suspicious characters. The nation is apprehensive that were their principles matured into system, the boasted liberty of Britons would be at an end; and all that happiness, and commerce, and wealth which are its legitimate children would not long remain behind it. It wishes any body therefore in the seats of power rather than these persons; and wisely concludes that it can much sooner repair any loss derived from too feeble opposition to an enemy, than it can repair an injury committed upon its freedom. If it is debarred by such good reasons from turning to these persons as desirable successors to the present ministers, it is deprived at the same time of the hope of profiting by the services of Mr. Pitt; because such is his connection with these his former associates, that he cannot be willing nor probably able to form an administration without them. When the people too look back to the conduct of the last war under these celebrated characters, it cannot be asserted that they see much to admire. If energy consists in the spending of money, there is abundant proof of it; or if it consists in violent declamation against the enemy, there is no deficiency. That our navy, with the superior number of ships, of which it consisted, and the unrivalled skill and heroism of our seamen, should not perform the greatest exploits, without the most infamous mismanagement, was impossible. When we have passed this part of the service, few people are found who bestow much praise on the use made of the lives and wealth of Great Britain in the West Indies, in Holland, and on the coast of France. With regard to the Dutch foreign possessions, it was easy to take what was not defended, and the weakest ministry on earth would not in this respect have done less than was done by Mr. Pitt and his friends. The only military expedition during the whole war, in which they were not baffled, was that to Egypt. But surely the share of the ministers in the merit of that business is very small. When an enemy had taken possession of a territory which greatly increased his power, and endangered a valuable territory of yours, did it require very deep policy to form the resolution of wresting it from him again if you could? How were any great efforts of wisdom or magnanimity necessary for what the ministers did in fitting out the expedition? Very great merit was acquired by the army. But the ministers did no more than what it seems impossible they could avoid doing. In other instances how many ill-concerted measures, how,

much want of information, of ingenious contrivance, or even of good sense are visible? When we look at the enormous means supplied for the maintenance of the last war, and the size of the things accomplished, there appears a wonderful disproportion. When the arbitrary tone therefore of the late administration, and its pretensions to able conduct are fairly weighed, the people feel no great alacrity at the thought of changing for it even the present.

When from this party the people turn their eyes to the old opposition, they probably feel still less disposition to transfer to them their confidence. We all recollect the violent odium which was excited against this party during the period when the alarm concerning Jacobinism prevailed. The influence of that odium is still very strong with a large proportion of that part of the people who possess, and who ought to possess the greatest influence.

But if the people have sufficient confidence, neither in the Grenville and Pitt party, nor in the old opposition, what can they do? It is natural to do the very thing which they do at present; disapprove of the ministers, and yet shew no great desire to have them removed. We are well assured that this strange state of parties is a great cause of the forbearance, by some called apathy, which leaves the ministers so much at ease in their situations.

Another reason of which we have long been deeply sensible, has lately been assigned by a writer, from whom we did not expect the observation, the great advocate of the Grenville system and party. This reason is the indirect influence of the crown. To speak in terms of disapprobation of this influence has for some years past been so vehemently decried, that many persons, who thought it dangerously increased, were yet afraid to utter their sentiments. For this reason we think the opinion of a man, who is thought to speak the sentiments of the party, the most violently monarchical in the country, of some value. In the Political Register of the 11th inst. Mr. Cobbett thus expresses himself; "If you ask me how the situation in life of the people depends upon Mr. Addington, I need only beg of you to recollect, that he is either directly or indirectly, actually the *pay-master* of nearly *one half of the people*, as must be evident to any one who will give himself time to consider the amount of the revenue and of the loans, the mode of the collection of the former, and the manner in which the whole finds its way through the hands of the government into those of the community. Let any ten readers of the register make out a list of their acquaintances, then enquire strictly into the connections, views and interests of each, and if they do not find that a very great *majority* of them are in a state of ministerial dependance more or less complete, I will give up all pretensions to political calculation. When therefore we express to one another our astonishment at the duration of a ministry, who have neither weight of family, of public character, or of talents, one of which at least, has always heretofore been, in this country, regarded as absolutely necessary to the support of a ministry, we forget the vast and fearful addition, which, since the commencement of Mr. Pitt's sway, has been made to that power which is attached to the office of the minister; we forget that the taxes have been tripled, that the tax-gatherers and others receiving their bread immediately from the hand of government have been more than tripled, and that by the help of companies, of boards, &c. the chain of dependance is now so complete as to render the whole nation a sort of vassal village of which the minister is the lord. Mr. Pitt *retired*, or he might have been minister to the end of his life; that is to say, if his death had not been preceded by that of the funding and taxing system. Mr. Pitt, upon his retirement, seems to have thought that the unbounded influence he had enjoyed, belonged to his person and talents, not to his office; a mistake, which if he had not perceived it before, must have been radically removed by the treatment of his proposal relative to the tax upon the funds.****Though taxation in the abstract be not tyranny, it may be carried to such a length as to produce *slavery*. It may be so far pushed as to make *all* the people of a country dependent upon the government for the necessaries of life; and yet all the forms of law, all the names, forms, and appearances of property and of liberty, civil and political, may still remain. In such a state of things, no one would, I presume, pretend that the people were *free*. This is indeed to suppose an extreme case; but a nation may be very far from this extremity, and may nevertheless have lost by the influence of taxation, a considerable portion of its liberty. This is the situation, in which I look upon Great Britain as being placed at this moment."

We do not agree with this writer in every assertion in the above quotation. The minister is not *actually* the pay-master of any thing like so great a proportion of the people as one half. The great body of the people are the cultivators of the ground. In short, the proportion of the labouring people who receive any actual pay from government is very small; and they form nine tenths of the whole community. He says that the taxes were tripled during the sway of Mr. Pitt. They were doubled, but not much more. He says the number of tax-gatherers was very little encreased. The same persons in most cases, who collected the old were sufficient to collect the new taxes. In some instances they were even reduced. Nevertheless we are confidently of opinion that the influence attached to the office of the minister was much more than tripled during the administration of Mr. Pitt. It is to be observed that this influence advances in a geometrical progression. A new place at the disposal of the ministers secures the dependance, not of one individual, but of many. There is first the person who enjoys, and next two or three competitors for the succession, and all the train of connections and dependants, however long, of both parties. If the quantity of the money therefore at the disposal of government had increased threefold during the administration of Mr. Pitt, the influence of the minister must have increased many times three-fold. The multitude of places, and appointments augmenting the patronage of the crown, created during the administration of Mr. Pitt, we agree was truly enormous. And if we consider the indirect influence attached to the office of the minister, we shall proba-

bly not hesitate to allow that it does extend to a full half of the whole population. For if it be observed, that the persons into whose hands the evacuation of the exchequer falls are chiefly the people in the superior ranks of life, and that a very great majority of them, either by the receipts or expectations of themselves, or their friends, are directly under the influence of government; and if it be further considered that these dependant persons have by their expences a great influence over a number of the inferior order of subjects, who from interest speak the sentiments of their employers and patrons, it will appear very clear, that the hopes and fears of more than one half of the whole population hang upon the favour or disapprobation of the minister and his adherents.

Another consequence follows. The vehement approbation expressed by so great a proportion of all his acquaintances as astonishes and confounds the man who is not subject to any private motives of favour. Though he can see nothing in the conduct of the minister which entitles him to so much applause, he is afraid to trust his own judgement, when he finds so many persons of a contrary opinion; and dares not think of expressing any strong disapprobation, when he is sure his opinion will be immediately exploded by the loud and indignant voices of the greater number of persons around him.

From an impartial consideration of the extent and force of ministerial influence, there are not many, we think, who will not join us in this opinion that it is now a difficult thing to remove any minister from his place, who has fairly got the command of the springs of influence; and that the hopes and fears arising from this influence are one great cause of the acquiescence of the people in the present goverment of Mr. Addington.

Political History, Foreign and Domestic. From Feb. 1, to 16.

Little intelligence has been received from France during the last fortnight; and whether the French be on the point of embarking; whether their preparations be extensively formidable, or greatly indebted to the exaggeration of fame, we are left to conjecture from former reports. The Batavian government has lately published a decree respecting those officers and soldiers; who may be made prisoners of war in the expedition. It ordains among other penalties, that they shall forfeit to government whatever pay may be due to them; that the time during which they are prisoners, shall not be taken into the account of their period of service; that officers of course shall be deprived of advancement during the same time, and be replaced by those who may have not suffered themselves to be taken. The Dutch officers, however, by an indignant opposition to this decree, and a general tender of their resignations, if it should be enforced, have obliged their government to repeal it. The French troops who have been marched from Hanover to the Dutch coast sustained great hardships from the frost, which prevailed at that time, and considerable numbers have been left on the way. Ten thousand men are assembling in the neighbourhood of Toulon, and General Regnier, who wrote the account of the expedition to Egypt, has left Bologna to assume the command of them. Certain movements are likewise reported to have taken place among the 50 thousand French soldiers in the South of Italy as if something important were in agitation somewhere in the Mediterranean. Part of the flotilla at Flushing, and part of that at Boulogne, lately put to sea, and after manœuvring, and exercising, the men returned in safety. This appears to have been the cause of rumours about the sailing of the expedition against England; and was probably contrived to produce this end. The gun-boats No. 43 and 47, the brig No. 51, and the lugger 411 have been captured; and with them some pieces of artillery, and some soldiers and sailors. The gun-boats are described as being very well built, about 80 feet in length and 18 in width, drawing 6 feet of water forward, and four feet abaft. Each of them carries a 32 pounder, and is capable of holding from 200 to 250 men. The most important event to France which has happened in this interval is the complete surrender of St. Domingo to the dominion of the Blacks, the accounts of which event have been confirmed, and the particulars published since the appearance of our last Number. For some time the French army had been in a deplorable condition; all the places which they possessed had fallen into the hands of the negroes, and all success from any further opposition hopeless. A proclamation has since been published by Dessalines, Christophe, and Clervaux, in the name of the Black people and men of colour in St. Domingo, "declaring the independance of the island, and their determination never to relinquish the rights of freedom." Those proprietors of the land, who are abroad, who will do them justice, and treat them as brothers, they invite to return among them; those who retain their ancient prejudices they threaten; and to those who speak of slavery they do not promise to abstain even from cruelty. They lament the excesses which have been committed in moments of exasperation; but hope that now, "when victory has restored peace, every thing in St. Domingo will assume a new face and its government be that of justice." Commerce has already commenced between this and the other islands, under the protection of the new Government; and a negotiation is said to be going on with the government of Jamaica to regulate the intercourse between the two islands.

The state of Jamaica from the events in its neighbourhood has become not a little interesting. The Governor-General of that island some time ago laid before its Assembly a letter from Lord Hobart, containing a proposition to the Assembly for a grant for the maintenance of an additional force of three thousand men, become necessary for the protection and security of the colony. The request was not granted; and the reason given for this refusal was, that from the great loss of trade which the island had sustained, it was unable to defray such an expence.

Our possessions in the East too are not in complete tranquillity. The events of the war with the Mahrattas on the continent are altogether in our favour. But a melancholy accident has happened in Ceylon. In consequence of a dispute with the Candians,

king had been driven from his capital by our troops, and a new sovereign raised to his place. The king re-assembled his friends, and attacked the English garrison which had been left for the protection of the new government, who being reduced by sickness, and in want of provisions, at last listened to the terms of capitulation. Under promise of boats to conduct them down the river to the English forts, the men were induced to deliver up their arms, and were afterwards butchered. It is stated that the Malays have in this affair discovered perfect fidelity to the English.

The military preparations of Russia are not inconsiderable. The troops in Livonia, Esthonia, and Courland have received orders to hold themselves in readiness to march at 24 hours notice; it is even said that contracts for transporting the baggage, &c. of the army have been concluded. It is stated in the last mail from Gottenburgh that an additional levy of troops to the amount of 80,000 men has been ordered by the Emperor, who has determined to take Denmark, now menaced with invasion, under his protection. The blockade of the Elbe and the Weser is said to have benefited the trade of Holstein.

The Spanish merchants, if their opinion is of much value, look on a war with Spain as inevitable; while the Spaniards almost universally detest the domineering influence of France. The forbearance of England seems to have had a salutary effect on their minds, and the language prevalent in Madrid is, that the English must have the greatest disinclination to go to war with them, since they have allowed them to bring home all their money. The English ambassador is a favourite at court, and the Prince of the Peace is partial to England, because he has considerable sums in the English funds; but all this influence is feeble, against the terror of Bonaparte's frowns. Letters from Madrid announce the arrival of the Spanish silver ships with cargoes to the amount of 67,000,000 of piastres.

The subject of chief interest which has been before parliament since its meeting after the recess, is the bill for consolidating and amending the acts relative to the volunteers. Scarce any alteration is made in the provisions of the preceding acts, and the chief intention of the bill seems to be to render these provisions more clear and explicit. The power of resignation respected in preceding acts, is not infringed in this; the necessity of committees is allowed; the exemptions granted by former acts are all to be confirmed by this; and in the system, if system it can be called, no alteration whatever is made by the proposed law. The ministers however have declared, that they will advise his Majesty to exercise his prerogative in appointing officers to volunteer corps, in the manner he shall think best, without requiring or attending to the recommendation of these corps.

On the question concerning the propriety of continuing the restriction of payments in specie at the Bank of Ireland some interesting conversation took place in the house of Commons on the state of exchange between Ireland, and Britain. The extraordinary fact was declared, that this is near 20 per cent. against Ireland. As the balance of trade between the two countries is altogether unfit to account for this, it has been ascribed to the depreciation of the paper currency of Ireland, by the excessive issues of the Bank. The paper of the Bank of Ireland, in circulation at present, was stated to be more than five times what it was in 1797, while that of the Bank of England had been increased during the same period only one-fifth.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Captain Robert Percival, who lately gave to the public a valuable account of the *Island of Ceylon*, has in the press an account of the *Cape of Good Hope*, at which colony he remained some time, on his voyage to and from the East Indies. It is pleasing to observe that while the swords of our officers are adding new territories to the British empire, their pens are not unemployed in the interests of the republic of letters.

An Elegiac Poem is in the press from the pen of the Hon. William Spencer.

A translation of Asseline on the Plague, is now executing by Mr. Neale, surgeon, Bloomsbury-square, London, and will speedily be published. Asseline the author accompanied Bonaparte in his expedition to Egypt, and is now surgeon of the consular guards. The book contains a mass of curious and important facts respecting the motions and situation of the French army in Egypt, and respecting the plague, and other diseases with which the troops were affected in that country, and one chief object of the author is to prove that the plague is not contagious.

We are informed that some Letters and other MSS. from the pen of Mr. Richardson, the author of Grandison, &c. are in the possession of his family and will soon be published.

An Essay, medical, philosophical, and chemical, on *Drunkenness*, and its effect on the human body, by Dr. Trotter, of Newcastle, is in the press, and will be published in a few weeks.

Lord Grenville is printing a small volume of the Letters which the late Earl of Chatham sent to his nephew, the father of the present Lord Camelford.

The Rev. Mr. Evans, author of a Tour in North Wales, has in the press, Letters written during a Tour in South Wales.

Mr. Malkin is about to publish a Tour through Wales.

We understand that professor Robertson of Edinburgh, has at present in the press, a work on Mechanical philosophy, containing the substance of his Lectures. Whatever comes from the pen of Mr. Robertson, must be of the highest importance and value to the scientific world.

Mr. Macknight has been appointed assistant to professor Robertson, in the class of Natural Philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.

OXFORD.—The two prizes of £25 each, left by the late Dr. Smith, master of Trinity college, for two commencing Bachelors of Arts, the best proficients in Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, are this year adjudged to Mr. Wm. Allen Garratt of Trinity college, and Mr. John Kaye of Christ's college.

The subjects appointed by the Vice-Chancellor for Sir William Browne's prizes for the present year, are, for the

Greek Ode:
Græcia hodierna.
Latin Ode:
Εἰς οἰωνὸς ἄριστος, ἀμύνεσθαι περὶ πάτρης.
Greek Epigram:
Simulacrum Cereris, Eleusine deportatum.
Latin Epigram:
Veteres aviæ.

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Mr. Pinkerton's well known book on modern geography has been lately translated into the French, by C. A. Walkoner. This translation is preceded by an introduction to Geography, mathematical and critical, by S. F. Lacroix, of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts.

The *Pharmacopœia Batavia*, which has for some years been preparing by a select commission appointed for that purpose, is at length completed.

The Greek-and-German Dictionary of *Schneider*, has been translated into Dutch, by *M. Millies*, Lutheran minister at Culemburg. It is published in 4 vols. quarto.

A new periodical publication appeared on the 1st inst. at Gera, under the title of *Allgemeine Zeitung*, containing political, physical, and economical intelligence.

Citizen Briende, member of the Society of Medicine has lately published at Paris, a treatise upon the disease called Consumption or *Phthisis*, which will prove an excellent guide to the practitioner in the management of that disease, and a valuable acquisition to the science of medicine.

Joseph Buessy, physician of the *ci-devant* University of *Montpellier*, has published a treatise in one volume 12mo, upon the Theory of Contagion, and its application to the Small-pox and Cow-pox.

A new edition of the work of the Abbé Fleury, intitled "Manners of the Jews and Christians," has been just published at Paris. This edition is carefully corrected, and considerably augmented.

Some late accounts have been received by the Academy of Sciences at Petersburg, from their young Livonian traveller, Bergmann. He had formerly, in the year 1799, made a journey from Moscow to Sarepta; and from some Kalmuck priests in the neighbourhood of the latter place, learnt many very curious and interesting particulars of the ancient mythology and history of that people. He transmitted to the Academy a translation of some interesting passages of the traditions of the Kalmucks, and requested the Academy would enable him to traverse the country of the Kalmucks, for the purpose of collecting and translating their ancient manuscripts. This request was first granted him during the coronation of the Emperor Alexander at Moscow; of which he was informed by Count Novossiloff, who at the same time procured him a yearly allowance of 500 rubles.

The Italian tragic poet, Victor Alfieri, died at Florence, on the 8th of last October.

Died, on the 28th of December, Mr. Baron, professor of logic and *belles lettres* in the University of St. Andrews in Scotland. Professor Baron was a gentleman of very considerable talents, which the literary world have to regret he did not exert more assiduously. The only publication he sent to the press was an essay to explain the nature and effects of emigration, the design of which was to check that rage for emigrating to America, which at that time prevailed in Scotland, and which does still in a great degree prevail in the Highlands. The perspicuity, precision, and strength of reasoning which appeared in this essay give sufficient grounds to lament that Mr. Baron's abilities were confined within the walls of his class. He was engaged in writing a history of Greece, when the appearance of Dr. Gillies's history, which was composed on nearly the same plan, induced him to relinquish that undertaking. We hope, however, that his friends will soon be enabled to publish his lectures on Elocution which alone will be sufficient to ensure him that rank and reputation in the literary world to which his abilities entitled him to aspire.

Died, on the 29th of December, Doctor Walker, late professor of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh. This gentleman was highly esteemed by his numerous circle of friends, literary and philosophical, both for his abilities as a professor, and his mild unaffected manners as a gentleman. The only works of Doctor Walker which as far as we know have been sent to the press, are several Essays, which may be found in the transactions of the Highland Society of Edinburgh. The chief part of these consist in descriptions of the properties and use of *Kelp*, a marine substance found in great abundance on the northern coasts of Scotland. The collecting and preparation of this substance has of late become an object of considerable importance to the proprietors and occupiers of land on these coasts, particularly in the northern isles, and great quantities are exported every year to supply several glass founderies. In pointing out the value of this substance and its uses in the manufacturing of glass, Doctor Walker had a very considerable share. His lectures contain a prodigious variety of facts relating to the science to which his attention was more particularly directed, which were arranged in the most lucid order. Of these lectures we hope the public will soon be in possession, when the benefit of his exertions will be more widely diffused, and his reputation permanently established.

The King has been pleased to appoint Mr. Robert Jamieson, to the office of Regius Professor of Natural History, and Keeper of the Museum, or Repository of Natural History in the University of Edinburgh, vacant by the death of Dr. John Walker.

SCIENTIFIC.

We have to announce a new, and in some measure unexpected improvement in the Royal Institution. Five more courses of lectures, for the present season, will be given to the proprietors and subscribers—on Belles Lettres, ancient Architecture, Botany, Painting, and modern Architecture. The first of these five departments is committed to the Rev. Mr. Hewlett; the second and fifth to the Rev. Mr. Crowe, public orator of the university of Oxford; the third, to Dr. Smith, President of the Linnæan Society; and the fourth to Mr. Opie. The public experiments in chemistry, which we noticed in our 89th Number, will also commence on the 3d of the next month, and will be continued every fortnight during the season.

Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce.—The election of a Vice President of this Society in the room of the late Thomas Skip Dyot Bucknall, Esq. M. P. and of four additional Vice Presidents to relieve the labours of the existing twelve in filling the Chair of this flourishing Society took place on Tuesday last in the Great Hall of Meeting in the Adelphi. A numerous attendance of the Members of this useful Institution took place, to support the nomination of the respective Candidates for that honourable situation. Among the Voters we noticed the noble President, the Duke of Norfolk, Lord Romney, Sir J. W. Anderson, Bart. M. P. Sir Alexander M'Kenzie, Sir James Durno, Aldermen Combe and Boydell, James Martin, Esq. M. P. James Brogden, Esq. M. P. and Mr. Barry the painter, to whom the Society is indebted for one of the noblest efforts of English art. The ballot commenced at 11, (Thomas Pitt, Esq. V. P. in the Chair) and closed at two, and at five o'clock the Scrutineers declared the election to have fallen on the following gentlemen:—

Sir Robert Peele, Bart. M. P.
Richard Clarke, Esq. Chamberlain.
Nathaniel Conant, Esq.
Richard Powell, M. D.
Thomas Rowcroft, Esq. Alderman.

The election was very warmly contested on the part of the unsuccessful Candidates, and much good-humoured competition and canvassing took place on the stair-case, and in the rooms of the Society. After the business was closed, a few friends of the successful Candidates dined together

at the Crown and Anchor. The contest was on both sides conducted with the utmost fairness and liberality.

The Duke of Bedford's gold medal is to be given to the author of the best essay on Manure, which shall be sent to the Bath and West of England Society, before November next.

The celebrated Italian astronomer Piazzi is said to have discovered another new planet, in addition to the two which have been discovered within the last three years, the first by himself and the second by Dr. Olbers. But it is added that he has not yet communicated to his friends any information which can lead to a knowledge of its place in the Solar system.

The following process is recommended in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh, as the means of rendering Acorns an excellent substitute for Coffee:—"When the Acorns have been roasted brown, add to them small pieces of fresh butter, while hot, in the ladle, or cover the ladle, and shake it that the whole may be well mixed."

French chemists have discovered *Platina* to be a compound substance; containing, besides *Platina*, a black powder unknown, a *blue oxide* of some new metal, *Tellurium*, and *Chromium*.

The substance supposed to be *Agustine*, in the *Beryl*, called *Sappare*, is phosphate of lime.

A specimen of Pallas's *native iron* was sold in a lot for four shillings at the late sale of the Duke of Wirtemburg's duplicates in King's Auction-room—it is valued at twelve guineas! The fortunate purchaser of this extremely rare substance is Mr. Philips, Lombard-street. The collection in general consisted of trash; but among the minerals were some valuable specimens apparently not known to their former possessor: Of this number was the native iron, which was described as a piece of iron ore from Norway.

Amidst the present rage for Chemical Medicines we are sorry to see some of the simples of former ages, daily sinking into oblivion: among these the *Achillea Millefolium*, common *Milfoil*, or *Yarrow*, particularly deserves notice. It abounds in pastures, and by the sides of roads, flowering from June to September: it is mixed instead of hops, by the inhabitants of Dalecarlia in their ale. When fresh it is recommended to be bruised, by *Linnæus*, as an excellent Vulnary and Styptic, and by foreign physicians in Hœmorrhages, and is thought by Dr. Hill to be excellent in Dysenteries, when administered in the form of a strong decoction. It is also used for the scab in sheep.

Of all the *Acetous Salts*, the *Acetite of Alumine*, is become of greatest importance, from the use that is made of it by the dyers and calico-printers, as an *Aluminous Mordaunt*. The most effectual way of producing this useful salt is by means of the double affinities of common alum, and sugar of lead.

The following is the real recipe for making the celebrated *Acetum Prophylacticum*, or vinegar of the four thieves, who thus escaped during the plague at *Marseilles*. R flor. lavend. et rorism, fol. rutæ, absinth. salviæ, menth. ā . m j. Aceti vini cong. j. infund. in B. A. per 84 dies. R hujus tinct. ℔j. camph. ʒiii. m. f.

Mountain of Salt in Louisiana.—"There exists about 1000 miles up the Missouri, and not far from that river a *salt mountain*. The existence of such a mountain might well be questioned, were it not for the testimony of several respectable and enterprizing traders, who have visited it, and who have exhibited several bushels of the salt to the curiosity of the people of St. Louis, where some of it still remains. A specimen of the same salt has been sent to Marietta. This mountain is said to be 180 miles long, and 45 in width, composed of solid rock-salt, without any trees, or even shrubs on it. Salt springs are very numerous beneath the surface of the mountain, and they flow through the fissures and cavities of it. Caves of salt-petre are found in upper Louisiana, though at some distance from the settlements. Four men on a trading voyage, lately discovered one several hundred miles up the Missouri. They spent five or six weeks in the manufacturing of this article, and returned to St. Louis with 400 weight of it. It proved to be good and they sold it for a high price." *Extracted from an official account of Louisiana, published by the American government.*

Dr. Hoppe of Regensburg, has been appointed by the arch-chancellor to deliver a course of lectures on Botany. The public are freely admitted to them, and the lecturer receives an annual salary of 500 florins from government.

M. Jacobsen, an advocate of Altona, who lately published a practical manual on the maritime rights of England and France, has received from the Senate of Hamburg, to whom he had presented the work, a large golden medal accompanied by a very flattering letter.

Professor *Wrede* of Berlin, has received the silver medal of the Academy of Sciences at Haarlem for an Astronomical treatise.

The Galvanic Society at Paris have elected professor *Escke*, director of the Royal Institution for the Deaf-and-Dumb at Berlin, to be a corresponding member.

An institution for the gratuitous inoculation of the Cow-pox, has been established at Cassel, under the protection of the Elector of Hesse Cassel.

In the newly established *Pharmaceutic School* at Paris, *Vauquelin* is appointed director, *Trusson*, his assistant; *Cheradame* chancellor; *Bouillon Lagrange* professor of chemistry, *Henry* his assistant; *Brongniard* professor of pharmacy, *Bouriat* his assistant; *Laugier* professor of the natural history of medicine; *Guyart* professor of botany, and the younger *Guyart* his assistant.

A fund has been established both at Prague and Vienna, for the widows of native musicians, by the exertions of Count Wenceslaus Spork, and sanctioned by a royal decree.

A subscription has been opened at Florence for erecting a monument in the cathedral there to the memory of the poet Dante. A drawing of this monument has been submitted to the Florentine Academy of the Fine Arts, and has met with universal approbation.

The collection of Charts of the Norwegian coast, taken from his Danish Majesty's archives of sea-charts, is completed.

Mr. Seguin, physician, has published in the *Bulletin des Sciences*, a paper relative to the means of discovering with certainty the real *febrifuge* principle of *Quinquina*. By a variety of experiments he found that this principle possessed striking and peculiar properties, which are, that it precipitates the solution of tan, but does not precipitate the solutions of gelatine and sulphate of iron. When Quinquina does not possess these characters, it is neither genuine, nor contains the febrifuge principle. By this test he tried all the kinds of Quinquina that could be found in the druggists' shops at Paris, and the result was that almost the whole was adulterated, and contained little or none of the febrifuge principle. The author then proposes to substitute another febrifuge principle, instead of Quinquina, which is *gelatine*, in its highest purity. This is a medicine cheap and indigenous, and not attended with the inconveniencies that belong to Quinquina, which gives a dreadful shock to the constitution. It is also much more efficacious than Quinquina, as proved by the author from the fact that thirty seven cures were lately performed by *gelatine* in the presence of several eminent physicians. This is a discovery of vast importance in the treatment of fevers.

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THE LITERARY JOURNAL.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

Memoirs of the Life of Dr. Darwin, with Anecdotes of his Friends, and Criticisms on his Writings. By Anna Seward, 8vo. *Johnson.*

DURING Doctor Darwin's residence at Litchfield, Miss Seward, whose father was a clergyman in that place, was very intimate in his family, and by that means had the best opportunity of becoming acquainted with his domestic life, his temper, and character. Of the particulars of Dr. Darwin's life, before his arrival at Litchfield, and subsequent to his removal from thence to Derby, our authoress does not pretend to give an account. Even of that period of Doctor Darwin's "professional existence" which passed in the city where she resided, Miss Seward does not profess to give "a regular detail of biographical circumstances." The materials from which her work was formed, were the person, mind, traits of character, and manners, excellencies and faults of Dr. Darwin; his powers as a physician, philosopher and poet, the "Petrarchan" attachment of his middle life, more happy in its results than was that of the bard of Vaucluse; the beautiful poetic testimonies of its fervor while it remained hopeless; an examination of the "constituent" excellencies and defects of his magnificent poem, the Botanic Garden, with remarks on his other writings; and the characters and talents of those who formed the circle of his friends while he resided at Litchfield.—The incidents more particularly connected with the life of Doctor Darwin, might to be sure have been comprised in a few pages, and conveyed in a letter to the person who is preparing a regular account of his life. But only a few incidents were wanting to answer the purpose of the learned authoress, which appears to have been to form them into a vehicle to convey into the world her deep and judicious animadversions upon his "magnificent" writings, of which the public might have been deprived, had it not been for this ingenious contrivance. The preface gives occasion to introduce some excellent observations on biography in general, in the course of which the reflections of the learned authoress are naturally directed to the character of the late Doctor Johnson, and the fidelity with which it is displayed by his justly celebrated biographers Piozzi and Boswell, whose meritorious labours an ill-natured poet had the presumption to ridicule under the denomination of "anecdotic scrap." But such things will not appear surprising, when it is considered that ordinary minds are incapable of appreciating the value of that sort of knowledge which teaches us how a man of genius coughs and sneezes, eats his bread and butter, whether he drinks tea or coffee at breakfast, whether he snores in his sleep, and what sort of stuff his night-cap is made of, with a variety of other matters that can be justly prized only by the "judicious few." Doctor Darwin, we are informed, after having studied at Edinburgh, came to Litchfield, and commenced practice as a physician in the year 1756. His form was athletic and inclined to corpulency; his face bore strong traces of the small-pox, and his countenance was rather saturnine than sprightly. In his speech he stammered extremely, and in his temper he was satirical, never failing to retort any opposition to his sentiments "by sarcasm of very keen edge." "Extreme," observes the learned authoress, "was his scepticism to human truth," which led him to examine into the nature and symptoms of the diseases of his patients by indirect questions rather than entering upon the subject all at once. His disposition was however social and benevolent. Soon after his settling at Litchfield, Doctor Darwin married his first wife, who however lived but a few years. Amongst the circle of his acquaintance, was the late Mr. Day, well known as the author of Sandford and Merton. A digression is made for the purpose of giving some particulars of the life of this gentleman which have been omitted by his biographer; which particulars, to ordinary minds that must be supposed incapable of comprehending the sublimity of the criticisms and poetry, will appear the best and most interesting part of the book. The substance of the information given with respect to Mr. Day is as follows. He was born to a competent fortune which he expended in a manner peculiar to himself. Master of his own actions, at the age of twenty-one he displayed a rigid and unbending morality, at a period of life when many other youths commence the career of vice and profligacy. He entertained the utmost contempt for the distinctions of birth, wealth or rank, and had no pity for the distresses that arose from imaginary causes, such as the vapours, &c. but he felt the most genuine compassion for those who were afflicted with the real distresses of cold and hunger, and spared no exertion for their relief that could be afforded by his purse or constitution. His mind was strong, his principles rigid, and he reasoned, acted and dressed like a philosopher. He was a friend to matrimony, and had resolved to marry as soon as he could find a woman with the virtues of a Cornelia, a Portia, or an Arria. His search for this phenomenon, as may well be supposed, was fruitless. He attributed the timid disposition of women, and want of energy in the female character, to a vicious system of education; and the errors and profligacy of the males to the same source. Of the influence of education he had the highest idea, and was persuaded that by the proper employment of this instrument, a person might be brought to an extraordinary degree of perfection both in mental and bodily powers. In order to reduce his system to practice he fell upon a singular device.

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Accompanied by a friend, he went to the foundling hospital at Shrewsbury, and from the children selected two girls, who were delivered to him upon conditions, that he should give a dowry of £500 to the one on the day of her marriage, and marry the other himself, or give her also a dowry on her marriage with some other person. He solemnly engaged never to violate the honour of either of them, and for the performance of these conditions, his friend Mr. Bicknell, a barrister, became surety. He immediately set off with his charge to France, where he continued for several years in retirement, and adhered with incredible perseverance to his system of education, performing for the children the lowest offices himself lest they should in any way be corrupted by an intercourse with servants. At length he returned with the young ladies to whom he had given the names of Lucretia and Sabrina, to England. Sabrina became the favourite, and Lucretia was sent to board at the house of an old lady of his acquaintance, whilst he continued his system of education with the former. But he did not find it succeed according to his expectations, for Sabrina could not be prevented from roaring lustily when subjected to pain, and screaming when a pistol which she believed to be loaded with ball was fired at her petticoats, with as much good will as some ladies at the sight of a mouse or a spider. He therefore gave up the attempt as hopeless, and his marriage scheme being of course set aside, Sabrina was sent to a boarding-school. His belief in the infallible powers of education was now weakened, and he became less averse to modern refinements. His philosophy could not however defend him from becoming the votary of the blind god. He was smitten with the charms of a young lady, who told him frankly that she could not love a person who in his dress and manners paid so little regard to the customs of life. The philosopher was so completely subdued that for the sake of pleasing his mistress, he went to Paris, where he continued for the space of a year under the tuition of a dancing-master, and such other persons as teach accomplishments of a similar nature that go to the composition of a fine gentleman. But the force of habit was not to be subdued. Mr. Day, after all his efforts, found that his attempts at acting the beau made him an object of laughter, and the mistress for whom he had undertaken the unpleasing task, declared that Mr. Day, *blackguard*, was more tolerable than Mr. Day, *fine gentleman*. He then returned to his old habits which were more congenial to a mind that had always disdained to be occupied with "trifles." He mixed however occasionally in society, and there accident brought him acquainted with a woman who loved him sufficiently to enable her to leave without regret the frivolities of her past life, and form herself in retirement after the model that existed in the imagination of her husband. At length this singular man fell a victim to one of his peculiar notions. He had imbibed a high idea of the docility of horses, and their attachment to those by whom they are well used, and reared a colt, which he continued a long time to feed with his own hand. The animal had learned to distinguish the sound of his voice, and ran towards him when called. At last he resolved to mount him, but the colt upon feeling the unusual weight threw him, and struck him, after he had fallen, with his heel, a blow on the head, which almost immediately proved fatal. Mrs. Day lived two years after this catastrophe, but it was supposed never during all that time saw the light of the sun, sleeping in a dark room by day, and in the night walking generally about her garden and indulging. In the solitary gloom, her anguish for the untimely fate of her husband Such was the character and end of this extraordinary man. The learned authoress then again brings Dr. Darwin from behind the scenes, and gives us an account of his progress in medical fame, and some instances of his sarcastic remarks; one of which, was the following reply to a person of the name of Robinson, who, unluckily for himself, happened to exercise his wit on a church-yard; "Robinson," said Doctor Darwin, "is not only a clever fellow, but a d——d clever fellow." About the year 1771, he commenced his Zoonomia, which was first published in 1794. He established a Botanic society at Litchfield, which consisted of himself and two other persons. He cured lady Northesk of a consumption which had baffled the efforts of the London physicians, and during the progress of this cure a speech made upon the occasion by *miss Seward*, full of courage and benevolence, is detailed, we doubt not with great fidelity. In 1778 Doctor Darwin first saw Mrs. Pole, wife of colonel Pole, of Radburn, in Derbyshire, for whom he conceived a passion. He celebrated her in the Petrarchan style, and fortunate it was for him that he did so, for the lady upon the death of her husband, colonel Pole, married him, having refused many young men, who from their youth, wealth, and exterior accomplishments, she thought more desirable matches. But the lady wisely regarding her future fame, chose the Doctor because he made verses upon her, though not without some terrors lest the grateful incense should be withheld when "she descended from her Laura-dignity to wife-hood." One of the conditions upon which she agreed to marry him was, that he should remove from Litchfield, to which she had taken an unaccountable aversion, and he was too much in love to refuse. He accordingly removed to Derby, and from this time the authoress seems to have lost all traces of him, till a little before his death, when he lost one of his sons, who in a fit of low spirits drowned himself. The Doctor's behaviour on this occasion displayed no small degree of philosophy, for upon hearing of the affair he said, "poor insane coward," and soon appeared as unconcerned as if nothing had happened. He died suddenly from a chillness in the blood, to which he had for some time before been subject. These particulars of the life of Darwin are intermixed with a great number of little poems of her own, the Doctor's, and other persons. The verses in the correspondence between the cats of the authoress and Doctor Darwin are peculiarly striking, as may be seen from the following specimen:

"Oh, should cat of Darwin prove
Foe to pity, foe to love!
Cat, that listens day by day
To mercy's mild and honied lay; &c. &c.

Chorus.

Waal, woea, trone, moan, mall, oll, moule."

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With the incidents relating to Doctor Darwin, the digression respecting Mr. Day, and accounts of various other persons, with pieces of poetry and criticisms upon them (for the learned authoress always criticises at great length) and the correspondence of the cats, Miss Seward contrives to make up about *one third* of her book. The other two thirds are composed of analyses of Doctor Darwin's great poems, and criticisms upon them. Into these criticisms however, though undoubtedly very profound and very learned, we shall not enter very minutely. In her remarks upon the beauty, sublimity, and magnificence of Doctor Darwin's poetry, we entirely agree, and also in her general criticisms. The "Loves of the Triangles," as the learned authoress observes, are beautifully Darwinian, and, instead of denying that he had ever seen or heard of this poem, he certainly ought to have mentioned it as a meritorious attempt to follow the track which he had traced out. The ingenious author, we have no doubt, smitten with the charms of scientific poetry, intended it not as a satire, but as an humble tribute to the abilities of his predecessor. We are happy to observe that vulgar prejudice is likely to be done away on this subject, as an ingenious friend has informed us that he is engaged in turning the Encyclopedia into rhyme, and we hope to be able to announce, that Newton's Principia are hawking about the streets in the form of very pretty ballads set to the tune of Chevy Chace. The learned authoress particularly points out the beauties of the illustrations, such as Europa bestride her bull, Venus and Mars caught in Vulcan's net, &c. &c. all which she dwells upon with great delight. She censures the dull prosing poetry of Cowper, "which certainly is no more to be compared with that of Darwin, than a rural nymph full of youth and vigour, and adorned with the bloom of health and innocence, is to be compared to a half rotten, half drunk woman of the town, who drags her sickly feeble form along in tawdry tattered magnificence." Much as we admire the matchless criticisms of the learned authoress, we must keep to our original intention of not examining them very minutely, for to the eternal disgrace of our taste and penetration, we could with difficulty, in perusing them, resist a most villainous inclination to skip a page now and then, and we are afraid that our readers will be apt to commend rather than censure our discretion in not furnishing them with a cure for the want of sleep. A sense of duty compelled us to restrain these inclinations which could not be entirely subdued, for ordinary minds cannot always comprehend the excellencies of criticism, nor can the versifyer always relish the beauties of poetry. One part of the critique is so choice, however, that it deserves to be mentioned. Addison's stile in the opinion of the learned authoress is feeble, and incumbered with a multitude of short words that offend every reader of taste. But she is happy to observe that his stile has fallen into merited disrepute, and that our senators, politicians, and historians have begun to use a more manly stile, distinguished for its *depth*, and high sounding, long, and mysterious words, for we begin to be aware of the value of mystery and hence our politicians generally contrive the stile of their speeches in such a manner that they may be construed five or six different ways, so as to apply to any occasion that may arise. Our learned authoress herself exemplifies her ideas of stile, for she often uses the most beautiful and natural inversions. "*Extreme* was his scepticism to human truth;" "A clear sighted politician is Sir Brooke Boothby;" these and a variety of inversions equally natural adorn the stile of our authoress. Some people who are insensible to the beauties of mystery might perhaps be desirous that by adding a verb, which is wanting in several sentences, something should be made out like sense and English. But they ought to consider that these omissions are excusable in the learned authoress who so modestly criticises the stile of Addison. But since Addison is censured, why should Johnson escape? Our authoress seems to have borne the latter a just grudge on account of his having, while at Litchfield, written to Mrs. Thrale a letter complaining of the barrenness of that city in people of intellectual abilities. She attacks him, therefore, with just indignation, for such an assertion, when he must have known, that at that moment there were three men of the highest talents, residing in Litchfield, Doctor Darwin eminent for his poetry, Doctor Vyse, who had written a ballad, entitled, "Charlotte Lynes," and Mr. Seward, the father of our learned authoress, who was a commentator on Beaumont and Fletcher's Plays! It is but justice also to mention, that our authoress with becoming spirit, asserts her claim to several lines, which Doctor Darwin had seized and inserted in his poems as his own. These are given in the Memoirs, as the property of the right owner, and with the innumerable other pieces of verse, serve to make up the volume. Whoever is fond of slips of poetry, quotations from the Botanic Garden, profound criticisms upon that and other poems, with a variety of matter equally instructive and entertaining, will find in this book wherewithal to gratify his taste. From the public in general, we doubt not, the work will experience that reception which its singular merits most justly deserve. D.

The Poetical Works of Charles Churchill: with Explanatory Notes; and An Authentic Account of his Life: Now first Published. 2 *vols.* 8*vo. pp.* 861. C. *and* R. Baldwin.

We have long wished for an edition of Churchill's works upon the present plan, but had almost despaired of its being executed. Nearly forty years have elapsed since his death, during which period, none of his friends interposed to preserve either his memory, or his works. Yet we know not whether, all circumstances considered, such an edition as that now before us, could have appeared sooner without giving offence. National or party prejudices are generally of long life, and in some cases have been carefully handed down from one generation to another. The time, however, seems now arrived, when the satire of Churchill may be perused as a mere exercise of genius, when it can neither encourage existing prejudices, nor revive obsolete animosities, and when he may be allowed to take his rank among English poets,

instead of being consigned to oblivion as a party writer. That he was a man of real genius, cannot well be disputed, and the many brilliant passages, and highly finished sketches which occur frequently in his works, while they claim the admiration of every man of taste, will amply justify his Editor for exhibiting the whole in their present elegant and useful form.

The Editor informs us, in his preface, that the difficulty he experienced in understanding many of the allusions contained in Churchill's poems, gave rise to the present work, and that he was encouraged to prosecute his undertaking by meeting with the following observation in Dr. Kippis's Life of Churchill in the Biographia Britannica—"Perhaps nothing will revive the memory of our author's poems, so as to cause them again to be generally read, excepting a new edition with notes fully explaining the satirical and historical allusions. This was what Mr. Churchill himself before his decease wished to be done. In his will is the following passage:—I desire my dear friend John Wilkes, Esq. to collect and publish my works, with the remarks and explanations he has prepared, and any others he thinks proper to make."——Our editor, however, discovered on application, in consequence of this request, to a friend of the late Mr. Wilkes, that he left no such manuscript behind him, though on the publication of each of Churchill's poems, he had a copy bound and interleaved with writing paper, in which, for reasons best known to himself, he never wrote a line. Mr. Wilkes's reasons, we think it not very difficult to conjecture. When Churchill died, Wilkes was deeply involved in affairs of more consequence to himself, than honouring the memory of a man from whom he could derive no farther advantage; and when afterwards he had sufficient leisure in his Isle of Wight retirement to have fulfilled Churchill's request, he no doubt recollected with what impropriety an illustration of his poems would come from one who after his *patriotism* had done its best, was now become a courtier, and had been expelled from the house of commons by the very constituents who once struggled so hard to place him there. Besides, it is very certain that Wilkes showed an extreme reluctance to preserve the memory of his early life and connexions, and employed his last days in burning a vast mass of papers consisting of correspondence, private history, &c. Dr. Kippis, indeed, acknowledges his having contributed to Churchill's Life in the Biographia, but how small that contribution was, will appear by comparing Dr. Kippis's account with any preceding attempt.

Deprived of this assistance, our editor had recourse to contemporary publications and such information as could be gleaned from a few surviving friends of the poet, and especially some MSS. communicated to him by Mr. Flexney, the original publisher of Churchill's works. Of what use these have been in the illustration of the poems, will be the subject of our future consideration. At present we shall confine our remarks to the Life, which is written in the spirit of candour, and according to the strict justice required in every biographer.

Previous to this edition, we had indeed no authentic and satisfactory account of Churchill. The first attempt of the kind appeared in the Annual Register for 1764. Manufactured partly from that, was a publication of 1765, entitled, "Genuine Memoirs of Mr. Charles Churchill, with an account of, and observations on his writings; together with some original letters that passed between him and the author." These original letters bear every mark of forgery, and the whole indeed is a miserable catchpenny, written in a vulgar style, and full of rant about liberty, suited to the times. There is a third account prefixed to an edition of his works pretendedly, and perhaps, really printed in Holland, 1768, which oddly enough is made to conclude without any mention of his death. In Dr. Kippis's Life in the Biographia are evident symptoms that he had consulted all these, and, with his usual judgment and impartiality, made a tolerable article from scanty materials, employing his notes wholly on extracts from the poems. The assistance of Wilkes, which he politely acknowledges, is, as we have already observed, very small. One new anecdote only is given from Dr. Kippis's personal knowledge, which is highly honourable to Churchill. To that we shall have occasion to revert.

When entering on the life of Churchill, our editor judiciously remarks that it may be divided into two periods, as unequal in their length as in the celebrity which attached to them. "During the first period of seven and twenty years, with the exception of a few indiscretions, his conduct in every relation, as son, as brother, husband, friend and father, was rigidly and exemplarily, though obscurely, virtuous and correct; the remaining six years of his life present us with an odious contrast."

The particulars of his early life are detailed minutely, and apparently from authentic sources. The principal error of his former biographers, we find rectified in a note. "We have endeavoured," says the editor, "to ascertain the truth of the anecdote so often repeated, of Churchill's retiring into Wales upon a curacy of £30 a year, his commencing cyder-merchant to improve his revenue, his ill success in that speculation, and its termination in a sort of rural bankruptcy. The manuscripts in our possession make no mention of these circumstances, and we have every reason to believe that Rainham and Cadbury were the only country churches in which Churchill ever officiated as curate." This, therefore, we presume may be the truth; there seems no blank in his life, as given here, which we could suppose sufficient for the employments of a curacy and cyder-cellar. If it should be urged that the anecdote was published immediately after his death, and although repeated in biographical compilations, was suffered to remain uncontradicted, it may be answered that Churchill had never the good fortune to possess a friend who cared what might be said of him after his death. Wilkes, in our opinion, did not know much of his early life; Lloyd was the friend most likely to honour his memory by a narrative, but he was almost *in articulo mortis* when Churchill died. We have heard much of the degradation of the pastoral character in the case of Welsh curates. Let us hope, however, that the instance of Churchill may be withdrawn.

When Churchill succeeded his father as curate and

lecturer of St. John the Evangelist, Westminster, in 1758, we are told he performed his duties with the utmost punctuality, and in the pulpit he was plain, rational and emphatic. We agree, however, with the editor that no judgment can be formed of his abilities as a preacher, from the volume of sermons published after his death. They may have been some of his fathers', but for the publication of them, as his own, and after his character as to religion and morality had been completely blasted, we know of no apology that can be accepted.

The transition from this life of regularity to that of excess and imprudence is well delineated, and accompanied by some notices of Lloyd, with whom Churchill had formed a school-acquaintance, and an account of Lloyd's father's interposition in Churchill's embarrassed affairs, and the consequent happy arrangement with his creditors, who, by Dr. Lloyd's mediation, were content with a composition of five shillings in the pound. This is followed by the anecdote to which we have already alluded, and shall now transcribe. Dr. Kippis states "that in an instance which fell under his own knowledge, as an executor and a guardian, Mr. Churchill, as soon as he had acquired some money by the sale of his publications, voluntarily came forward and paid the full amount of the original debt. Dr. Kippis adds, that it was highly probable, from this unsolicited and unexpected act of equitable retribution, that his conduct was the same in other cases."

Churchill's first appearance as a poet is thus traced:

"A short time previous to this transaction, and soon after the renewal of his intimacy with Lloyd, his genius once more reverted into its natural channel. The example and success of his friend, in the walks of literature and poetry, excited a friendly emulation, and stimulated him to the exertion of his poetical abilities. The Bard, a poem in Hudibrastic verse, was his first production after re-entering the regions of Parnassus. It was offered for sale to Mr. Waller, an eminent bookseller in Fleet-street, who without any hesitation rejected it as a contemptible performance. The author seems to have coincided with him in this opinion, as he could never afterwards be induced to publish it. The Conclave was his next attempt in the poetical line; this was a satire levelled against the Dean and Chapter of Westminster, Dr. Zachary Pearce, late Bishop of Rochester, then being Dean. It was written in Alexandrine verses, and was remarkably poignant and sarcastic; the characters were nervously drawn, boldly coloured, and nicely discriminated. This poem he also designed for publication; but, on its being submitted to the gentlemen of the long robe, they pronounced the satire to be of too personal a nature to admit of being printed, without danger of incurring legal animadversion. Though disappointed in the brilliant expectations he had formed of the success of his poem, Churchill was not to be deterred from his object by this repulse. He now determined to fix his choice upon a subject of more universal interest, and accordingly after two months close attendance on the theatres, completed the Rosciad. Being encouraged in his present plan by the approbation of a few of those literary friends, to whose judgment the manuscript had been submitted, he was induced to offer the Rosciad to several booksellers, at the trifling sum of five guineas; but meeting with a peremptory refusal, he determined, at length, to publish it on his own account, and accordingly it appeared in March 1761, when the opinion of his friends was fully confirmed by the rapidity of its sale, which exceeded their most sanguine expectations. The strength, harmony, and natural flow of the verse, the variety of the numbers, the manliness of sentiment, the diversity of characters, the easy vein of humour, and the justice of the remarks and observations, contributed to render it equally pleasing to the lovers of wit, poetry, and criticism.

"The circumstances attending the publication of this poem, its popularity, and the attribution of it to Lloyd, Colman, and Thornton, the reader will find detailed in a subsequent page; we shall here only add, that very few even of his most intimate acquaintance gave Churchill credit for that fertility of thought, and strength of imagination, displayed in the Rosciad. So difficult is it to determine from a man's conversation, the scope, extent, and vigour of his understanding.

"The judgment passed upon this work by the Critical Reviewers roused our author to the publication of a poetical Apology, addressed to them, which at once established his fame in the literary world. It is one of the most finished and correct of his productions, the diction is regular and connected, and the numbers happily adapted to the sense, while the satire is spirited and just, pointed and severe."

The sale, profits, and celebrity of the Rosciad were all extensive beyond expectation; few poets have, indeed, been so fortunate in their *debut*. Yet he was now doomed to add another to the melancholy catalogue of writers who have disgraced their characters and genius, by irregularity of conduct. Introduced into the society of men whose literary endowments were connected with dissoluteness of life and manners, he became a man of pleasure and a wit. In 1761 he parted with his wife, whose conduct is said to have been not entirely void of blame, and began to disregard his religious functions, and to shock his parishioners by the unbecoming nature of his dress. What he adopted was a blue coat with metal buttons, a gold laced waistcoat, a gold laced hat and ruffles. This, in our opinion, was little short of a species of lunacy; at least nothing could be so preposterous as this shewy dress upon a man unusually clumsy, and nothing more insulting to the common opinions of public decency. He relieved himself, however, from one branch of the sense of shame, by relinquishing his clerical functions altogether, and his parishioners, however shocked, could not be sorry to lose such a pastor. His vindication of his conduct in the poem called "Night" is justly censured by our editor, as proceeding on the false principle "that the bare-faced avowal of vice is less culpable than the practice of it under an hypocritical assumption of virtue." We meet with some remarks not less just on "The Ghost," his next publication, but the consideration of these must be reserved for our review of the *Works*. The following includes a curious piece of literary history:

"In the year 1762, Churchill plunged deeper and more irrecoverably in the mire of debauchery and faction, by the commencement of his acquaintance with Mr. Wilkes, whose coadjutor he became in that envenomed vehicle of falsehood and sedition, the North Briton. What share he took of the labour in that publication we are unacquainted with; but Mr. Kearsley, in his examination before the secretaries of state, told them, that Mr. Charles Churchill received the profit arising from its sale. This circumstance rendered him of importance enough to be included with Wilkes in the list of those whom the messengers had *verbal*

instructions to apprehend under the general warrant issued for that purpose, the execution of which gave rise to the most popular and only beneficial part of the warm contest that ensued with government. Churchill was with Wilkes at the time the latter was apprehended, and himself only escaped owing to the messenger's ignorance of his person, and to the presence of mind with which Wilkes addressed him by the name of Thompson.

"The materials of the Prophecy of Famine, were first proposed to Churchill as the subject of a paper for the North Briton; but on more mature consideration, he determined upon converting it into a poem. This he did with extraordinary success and felicity of expression; and, though we are far from justifying the spirit of nationality with which it is imbued, we cannot but consider it as one of the most admirable specimens of satirical composition in the language. On the subject of this poem it has been observed, that the author displays in it a peculiar happiness of throwing his thoughts into poetical paragraphs, so that the sentence swells to the conclusion, as in prose."

Our editor proceeds with the other poems in the order of publication. They were all published within the space of three years, and all of them, from the nature of their subjects must have been conceived and executed on the spur of the occasion, a circumstance which, while it exhibits the fertility of his fancy, may account for their irregularities, and want of system, and often of principle. His death, although his constitution was greatly injured by excesses, was in some respects sudden. It occurred when he was on a visit to Mr. Wilkes, at Boulogne. Wilkes has informed the world that "the goodness of Churchill's heart, and the firmness of his philosophy, shone in full lustre during the whole time of his very severe illness, and that the comprehensive faculties of his mind remained unimpaired till within a few moments of his death." He positively denies, however, what Davies in his Life of Garrick confidently asserted, that the last words uttered by our author were, "What a fool have I been!" He was about thirty-four years old at the time of his death. He left two sons, the charge of whose education was generously undertaken by Sir Richard Jebb, who sent the elder to the university of Cambridge with a handsome allowance. They neither of them proved worthy of this support; they inherited the faults, without the virtues and abilities of their father, and died like him, victims to their disregard of temperance and prudence.

We have omitted noticing many particulars in this life, because we would not anticipate the pleasure of the reader, or advert to any anecdotes that are generally known. The whole may be recommended as interesting and impartial. Some letters from Churchill to Wilkes are appended, which have been published formerly. They are strongly, but like all his writings, not very pleasingly characteristic of the *man*. His Will likewise is reprinted, by which it appears he died possessed of considerable property, arising from his writings. In his will it may be remarked he styles himself *clerk*. He does not, like a modern ecclesiastical turn-coat seem to think much of the *delibility* of the clerical character.

In our next we shall take a short sketch of the works and notes, which are replete with information and entertainment.—One remark, however, we had almost omitted which belongs to the present article. The editor in p. xlvii speaks of "some poetical trifles, ascribed to him on *dubious* authority, which appeared in the Library, a periodical Journal of the year 1761." This is not asserted on dubious authority, for it is asserted by Dr. Kippis, who was editor and chief prose writer in the Library. Of this fact, we are certain, although perhaps it is not of much importance. R.

Letters to a Young Lady, on a course of English Poetry. By J. Aikin, *M.D.* 12*mo. London* 1804.

There is nothing more useful to young persons of either sex, than a proper guide in their course of reading. Much time is often not only unprofitably, but even injuriously wasted, in the perusal of authors which ought for the benefit of mankind never to have obtained a reader except the corrector of the press. The fair sex suffer in a more particular manner by a desultory and promiscuous course of reading. The valuable part of the sex, we mean such as are attached to domestic habits, usually find abundance of leisure for reading; the circulating libraries are in this case naturally resorted to, but the librarian being the only director of their choice, at his recommendation, plays, novels, travels and tales, every new effusion of folly that is added to his shelves, pass successively into their hands. The only test which the fair reader can apply to the book, is the entertainment it affords; and as long as it is found to be amusing it continues to be read, however vicious in style or sentiment. The effect of impressions instilled in this manner, while the mind is bent on entertainment, and every avenue to the heart is thrown open and unguarded, has too often been exemplified in the wreck of virtue and happiness. But even where it stops far short of this, those hours that might have been employed in giving vigour and firmness to the female mind, which is naturally soft and flexible, and which might have informed the understanding and polished the taste, are lost: ignorance is replaced by a vitiated taste; and where the taste is corrupted the moral feelings seldom remain untainted.

From these observations, the importance of a guide in female reading will readily be acknowledged. The task however is attended with much difficulty. To direct with propriety the reading of a young lady, a man must not only have a correct taste himself, but he must have a clear conception of what is best calculated for the improvement of the female character. In marking out a particular course among works of fancy, there are also some errors almost inevitable which must arise from partialities; and there is no critic who does not over-rate the entertainment and improvement to be derived from some favourite author.

With all these draw-backs however, a directory to young females in their course of poetical reading, if executed by a man of knowledge, taste, and judgment, is a most valuable present. In Dr. Johnson's Lives of the English Poets, much useful information of this sort is to be found; yet although that work ought to be in every young woman's hands, still some guide more immediately intended for the sex, is requi-

site. Johnson often points out the merits of the several authors with much skill; but he does so necessarily in too general a way to afford sufficient information with regard to the respective pieces; nor is it within his plan to point out any particular arrangement in the course of reading, and still less to form a selection for the perusal of any class of readers.

These last objects are attempted by Dr. Aikin in the letters before us They are directed to a young lady, for whose instruction the author was interested by the ties of affection and kindred; and so well is this original object kept in view, that the work, both in regard to the sentiments expressed in it, and the course of reading it recommends, may safely be put by a father into the hands of his daughter. The plan pursued is first to habituate the ear to the melody of verse, by a proper selection of a few of the most accurate pieces in the various kinds of measure; and then to point out those productions of each poet, which are best calculated to afford instruction and amusement. In the first letter, there are some very just observations on those dangers which some people, from ignorance or want of taste, imagine to arise from putting poetry into the hands of their children. To young women a peculiar danger is supposed to proceed from the frequent introduction of *love* into the works of all poets. "I will not affirm," says Dr. Aikin, "that such danger is altogether imaginary; but, in my opinion, love in poetry is a more harmless thing than love in prose. The more of fancy is mixed with it—the more it is removed from common life—the less is its influence over the heart and conduct; and it is probable that the refinement and elevation of sentiment fostered by a taste for poetry may prove a protection from that light and vulgar passion which enters merely at the eyes, and is too sensual to be disgusted with coarseness and stupidity. Since then it is impossible to separate love from poetry, I shall not fear to recommend it to your notice in its purest, most tender, and fanciful form. Poets themselves, who have written upon it all their lives, have very soberly felt its influence."

The dangers apprehended from young persons of either sex reading poetry, are indeed, in this as in other instances, for the most part chimerical. There is no greater aid to virtue than a refined imagination, which turns with disgust and abhorrence from gross and mean actions. In this age in particular, where mercenary ideas are so prevalent in every condition of life, the father may think himself fortunate whose son has been raised, by the glowing sentiments of poetry, above putting his conscience or his honour to sale; and whose daughter has been too much warmed by the refined pictures of the muse, to yield herself up to the arts of the libertine, or the still baser allurements of avarice.

We are surprized to observe Dr. Aikin still adhering to that absurd and unnatural method of distinguishing the measures of English verse by long and short syllables. Whatever may have been the pronunciation of the ancients, the method of distinguishing their measures by long and short syllables, is sufficiently convenient, and is capable of being determined by fixed rules. The case is very different in English. In Greek and Latin, the long syllables are always accounted long and the short always short, with very few exceptions; whereas in English almost every monosyllable is long or short, as suits the convenience of the poet. Is it not absurd that a mode of measuring our verse, so completely vague and confused, should be adhered to, while the natural distinction of accented and non-accented syllables is rejected? Instead of telling us that English heroic verse consists of five Iambic feet, each consisting of one short and one long syllable, a distinction which the very next line may refute; why not inform us, in plain and intelligible language, that each line of our heroic verse contains ten syllables, alternately accented and not accented, that is, alternately dwelt upon and slightly passed over? This latter mode of defining the measure, is calculated to discover to us at once in what its regularity and harmony consist; for these qualities are chiefly offended against by the verse requiring the natural accent of a word to be slightly passed over, while the pressure of the voice falls upon a syllable unaccented in prose; or by the verse requiring the accent to be placed on such monosyllables as *the* and *a*, which the voice is accustomed to slur over, and which the ear cannot tolerate to be dwelt upon unless they are emphatic.

The general criticisms, which we meet with in this work, as well as those on particular pieces, are short and often superficial. Indeed diffuse or minute disquisitions are not to be expected from the plan laid down; yet in mentioning the origin of rhyme, it would not have occupied any unnecessary space, to have simply informed the young lady that it was adopted to assist the memory, among nations who had no other method but oral tradition of recording their heroic feats, their laws and religion. This, and not "puerility and caprice," Dr. Aikin certainly knows to have been the true origin of rhyme.

The criticisms on particular authors are in general correct as far as they go. That on Swift deserves particular notice, as it sets in a proper light the merits of a poet whose talents were over-rated in his own day and are under-rated in ours. In the characters of different poems, we find some trivial observations and criticisms introduced, which certainly are out of their place in describing a general course of poetry. Surely Dr. Aikin did not require to stop short in his criticism on Thomson's Seasons, to point out the analogy between the revolution of the seasons, and the several stages in the life of man; an observation which has been echoed and re-echoed by poets and moralists in every age, and which cannot fail to have reached the ears of his young female friend at least five hundred times. Neither can we see any particular occasion for our author stepping out of his way to compare Spenser's *Genius of Despair* to a Methodist parson. Perhaps however the most curious interlude is that in which the author gravely discusses the question, "whether *Satan* be the hero of Milton's Paradise Lost." Homer undertakes to sing the wrath of Achilles, and the voyages of Ulysses; and Virgil proposes to sing the wars and wanderings of Æneas: the Iliad, the Odyssey, the Æneid are therefore very properly occupied with the adventures of these heroes.

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Milton undertakes to sing the *Fall of Man*, and his poem is therefore very appropriately occupied with the various circumstances which led to this event. Because, however, Adam, the man whose fall is sung, does not, like the other heroes above-mentioned, besiege Troy, traverse the Mediterranean, or build the city of Lavinium, he is unfit to be the principal subject of the poem! Another hero therefore must be found; and luckily for the fame of Milton, another personage engaged in many wars and adventures, namely *Satan*, is discovered to satisfy the demands of the Epic critics. This hero, Dr. Aikin seems to allow, is sufficient to save the Epic fame of Milton from absolute perdition; yet he condemns the poet who allowed this distinguished personage to "sink to insignificance and contempt before the conclusion." The devil should have his due; and it certainly was a very unwarrantable liberty in the poet to reduce his majesty of hell to the likeness of a filthy toad.

The partialities of Dr. Aikin for particular authors, are in no instance carried so far, as greatly to mislead the taste of his readers. The didactic poets are evidently his chief favourites. His partiality for Akenside, which is most conspicuous, is also most pardonable. Their coincidence in political sentiments forms one strong link of attachment; and Mrs. Barbauld's critical labours on the *Pleasures of the Imagination* unite them by a sort of family connection. The merits of Akenside are undoubtedly very considerable; yet no one whose ear is formed to relish the true melody of blank verse, will allow this to be attained by the formal and laboured pomp which appears almost uniformly in the versification of the Pleasures of the Imagination; nor will the reader always feel easy under the task of keeping a constant look-out for the little cock-boat of meaning, which frequently almost entirely disappears amidst the lofty billows of redundant figures and sonorous language.

The arrangement of the course is so much a matter of taste, that it admits of little discussion by argument. As no attention is paid to chronological order, Goldsmith and Cowper might certainly have occurred earlier in the selection, and Young's Night Thoughts much later. The style is that of a man accustomed to composition; it is easy and simple; nor is the character of familiar letters at any time defaced by affectation or obscurity either in the language or sentiment. Upon the whole our fair readers will find this guide to their course of poetry, neither unpleasant nor unskilful. Ω.

An Historical Review of the state of Ireland from the Invasion of that country under Henry II. to its Union with Great Britain on the 1st. of Jan. 1801. *By* Francis Plowden, *Esq.* 3 *vols.* 4*to. London,* 1803. Egerton.

(*Concluded.*)

This work is to be considered valuable in one respect; that it is a call to the British public to attend to the affairs of Ireland, and to acquire a more perfect acquaintance with the nature of her situation. So erroneous are our ideas with regard to every thing in Ireland, the state of society and manners, the present state of government, the administration of justice and police, parties popular prejudices, the distribution of wealth and poverty, &c. that there is possibly no country of considerable importance on the face of the earth, with the internal state of which, men of education in England are not better acquainted, than they are with that of Ireland. The reasons of this are pretty obvious; Ireland was considered as too completely dependent upon Great Britain to be an object of any terror; it was too near to be regarded with any wonder and curiosity, as many a man born and bred in London, was never in the inside of St. Paul's; and it afforded no materials, like the East and West Indies to the speculations of avarice, and mercantile adventure.

Juster views of the nature and causes of the wealth and power of nations have lately excited a spirit of more accurate inquiry with regard to the domestic parts of an empire. And though the late events which have happened in Ireland, had not in an extraordinary manner roused our feelings with regard to it, its own circumstances, its interesting situation, its admirable soil, its unrivalled bays and harbours, must quickly have pointed it out as an inexhaustible source of wealth and power to Great Britain. But whatever may be the physical advantages of any country, and few countries can vie with Ireland in that respect, the population of every country is the most important article. It is the people inhabiting the country who make the physical circumstances either useful or noxious. What are the dead qualities of a soil or climate, without human beings to act upon them? What are they without human beings in a state of civilization and government to act upon them with skill, steadiness, and order? What are they to you, if they belong to a part of the empire, without human beings disposed to employ the advantages derived from them to your good, not to your harm?

But to ascertain the state of the population is by far the most difficult, as well as the most important part of the inquiry. The physical, moral, and political habits, and character of the inhabitants of any country are not so easily discovered as the barrenness or fertility of the soil on which they tread, or the nature of the atmosphere which they breathe. The minds of our fellow creatures are invisible objects, strangely formed and modified by the action of all those circumstances, to whose influence they have been, in any manner subject, from the first moment of their existence. And circumstances, which occupy very little space in the eye of an ordinary observer, have often great influence in forming a national character. A minute acquaintance with the history, the factions, the government, the religion, the education, as well as with all the particulars of the physical situation of a people, are necessary to form a tolerable idea of their national character.

That the population of Ireland is in a state very different from what we could all wish, very different from that calculated to afford the greatest benefit to the empire from the natural advantages of the country, is the subject of universal and deep regret. It is impossible to be denied by any body, that the state of the population in Ireland is at this moment the most important object of political consideration in the

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circumstances of Great Britain, one of the most important objects of consideration on which any country was ever called upon to deliberate. What infinite advantages might not the empire expect to reap, considering the physical riches of Ireland, could her people be rendered equally laborious and orderly, with those in the better regulated parts of England! To what a height of grandeur and power is it not probable Great Britain would quickly arrive! How much is it to be regretted that any thing should prevent the realizing of so noble, so happy a prospect! On the other hand, what misery is to be expected from the continuance, and consequent increase, of the depravation of the Irish population! A continual contest must be upheld at a vast expence, which will insure the poverty of both countries, corrupt their moral feelings, and render them an easy prey, at some future period, to an enemy, unless some equally disastrous circumstances keep all their neighbours as weak as themselves.

It has been made a reproach against the actual state of the British government, that no political improvement of any magnitude ever originates with it; and is always obtained by the demand for it having become general among the people. Now, on the other hand, we regard this as one of the advantages of the British constitution, that no important change can be introduced, till the people have become thoroughly ripe for it. Rash and premature attempts at reformation by the government are extremely dangerous. When the government becomes a reformer in the first instance, it almost always goes too fast. In a country where the people enjoy the complete communication of their sentiments, it is only when the demand for an alteration in any part of the administration of affairs has become general among the better informed part of the people, that the government ought to consider the nation as prepared for it. This is probably the mark, the sign, for which the government ought to wait, that now is the time for the proposed amelioration. It is not to be feared, that if the people are left the liberty of speaking, they will not find out gradually the means of improving their situation. There is no reason why the government should not, by all means in its power, assist the people in making such discoveries; nay, it is its duty, though a duty very often ill performed. But no change, that is not of very mean importance, in the administration of public affairs, can be with propriety introduced into any country, till the people have become not only apprised of its advantages, but in some measure urgent for its adoption.

It is for this reason that we earnestly recommend the *Historical View of the state of Ireland*, with all its defects, and they are neither few nor small, to the attention of the public. We wish the people of Great Britain to read and to inquire about Ireland. They will thus, in time, become knowing in her state and circumstances. They will then see what is necessary to amend these circumstances. The public voice will point out improvements; and they will be easily and effectually executed.

The part of Plowden's history which it remains for us to examine, contains his account of two very important particulars, the rebellion, accompanied with all its horrid circumstances; and the Union, with so much difficulty, but according to our author so happily effected. We date the history of the rebellion from the time when ideas derived from the French revolution began to incorporate themselves with the old sentiments of the Irish. To these ideas the rebellion has very generally been entirely ascribed. We dissent very widely from this opinion. But we have no doubt that the operation of all other causes was greatly accelerated, and the form and complexion of the rebellion chiefly determined by these ideas. If the fair appearances which at first the French revolution exhibited, gained it favour and approbation very generally in England, they did so much more generally and much more strongly in Ireland. It would here have been very useful that the historian had entered into a short explanation of the circumstances in the state of Ireland, from which this enthusiastic favour arose. Such inquiries tend to throw great light upon the train of events, and distinguish the profound historian from the vulgar chronicler. If the reader have sagacity to discover any connection between the contests and dissentions in which Irishmen had been engaged before the French revolution, and the disposition which they shewed to admire it, he may; but he receives little or no assistance from Mr. Plowden.

Ever since the year 1782, two subjects had violently agitated the minds of the Irish, a reform in Parliament, and the exemption of the Catholics from all political disqualifications. The violent measures by which it had been proposed to pursue the first of these objects had been opposed by equally strong measures on the part of the crown; while the ardour of the people to attain what they wished had rather been inflamed by opposition. A general commotion, respecting these two objects, prevailed among the Irish when the French Revolution broke out; and for some time the pursuit of them was carried on, perhaps with rather more tumult, but certainly with no other views, than had existed ten years before. That the society of United Irishmen itself was at first formed to contribute to the attainment of these objects only, is not doubted by any body acquainted with the circumstances, and is indeed abundantly evident from their test.

The Catholics, according to Plowden, had for some time held back their claims, that they might not interfere with the efforts which were making to obtain a reform in Parliament, from the accomplishment of which object, the redress of their own grievances, they imagined, would naturally follow. By this conjunction of hopes, a sort of union had been formed between the Catholics, and the Protestant dissenters in the north, who were the great advocates of reform. The Catholics began to act in concert. A congress of delegates from all parts of Ireland, which was called the Catholic Committee, met at Dublin, and framed and published resolutions. Eager to avoid all imputation of democratical ideas, they chose Mr Burke's son for their secretary, who earned the contumely of Lord Clare by the zeal which he shewed for their in-

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terests. A great deal of bustle ensued. The business was prosecuted with great industry, and deeply interested the whole nation. An address, drawn up by the younger Burke, from the Catholics to their fellow Protestant subjects, is published. Sir Hercules Langrishe in the House of Commons moves resolutions in favour of the Catholics, and obtains leave to bring in a bill for their relief. Various petitions are presented; and one from the Dissenters in favour of the total emancipation of the Catholics. After violent debates, Sir Hercules Langrishe's bill passes the Committee. At this time the Irish seemed to be completely engrossed with the Catholic question, and all other objects were for a season in a great measure forgotten. The Catholic delegates published a declaration of their tenets and sentiments; and they drew up a plan for ascertaining the sentiments of the individuals of their communion, which was subjected to imputations of being dangerous in its tendency, and raised an outcry. Against this they published a vindication of their conduct and principles. And a digest of the laws respecting popery, which excited great attention, was drawn up by Mr. Simon Butler. Various similar proceedings, rapidly following one another, kept the public mind in agitation. Virulent debates attended the passage of Sir Hercules Langrishe's bill through the houses of parliament, which was found in many respects ineffectual after it had passed. The prejudices of many of the Protestants, embittered by the favour lately shewn to the Catholics, obstructed many of the effects of the law; and the Catholics were exposed to new calumnies, which they exerted themselves to refute.

During this time the disturbances in the northern parts of Ireland, between two opposite sets of insurgents, had risen to a great height. These were the Defenders and the Peep-of-day Boys, the first composed of the meanest and most ignorant of the Catholics, and the second of the same description of Protestants, who had begun a number of years before to commit outrages upon one another, in large bodies, and even to engage in battles. Several popular bills had, during the same time, been violently contended for in parliament, and as violently opposed. And the formation of societies for the propagation of political principles had been greatly extended. Some tracts had been published, so violent, that the Attorney General had thought proper to proceed against them as libellous.

In this combustible state was the public mind in Ireland, when the Earl of Westmoreland was recalled, and Earl Fitzwilliam appointed Lord Lieutenant. The views with which that nobleman accepted of his office, his actions, and the circumstances which occasioned his recall, are represented by Mr. Plowden pretty nearly as that Lord himself has represented them in the letters which he published, addressed to Lord Carlisle, and in his defences of himself in his place in parliament. The fact which chiefly deserves to be noticed here is, that he was deputed to give complete satisfaction to the Catholics in the removal of all disqualifications on account of religion; and to go a great way toward the satisfaction of the people at large, by yielding to several of the popular demands. That this was the Lord Lieutenant's own opinion of his mission, he has expressly declared; as well as unfolded the circumstances by which he was reasonably led to form this conclusion. And he did not delay to give indications of his favourable disposition toward the objects which he believed it to be part of his trust to accomplish. The spirits of the Irish were raised very high; the Lord Lieutenant was the object of passionate admiration; the business in parliament was conducted with the greatest harmony; the popular voice was turned in favour of government; when suddenly the Lord Lieutenant was recalled; and a complete reversal of all his schemes was understood to be the appointed system of his successor.

It is impossible for us to enter into the investigation of the circumstances of this measure, the object of so much wonder and amazement. They are, as usual, not detailed in a very satisfactory manner by Mr. Plowden, though valuable information is communicated by him. But it is well known what a deathblow to their hopes it was by the Irish conceived to be. From government they now ceased to look for any countenance in the removal of the grievances which they at least fancied they endured; it now appeared to them that what they wanted they must extort by violence, if they ever expected to obtain it; and the recent history of their country afforded them various instances of the success of similar attempts. From this period, therefore, associations and contrivances to give efficacy to the demands of the people, were formed with great zeal. These demands became gradually more indefinite and extended. Very strong and harsh measures were pursued by government to counteract the proceedings of the people. Reports of the things atchieved by the people in France against their government had reached the ears of a people highly exasperated against their own government. Persons who had espoused the nefarious purpose of subverting the established order of things in their own country, as it had been subverted in France, insinuated themselves into the tumultuous and dangerous meetings of a rude and headstrong people; and by hypocritical pretences, and artful misrepresentations, inspired, as extensively as possible, the poison of revolutionary principles. A people in that imperfect state of civilization, which at present distinguishes the rude Irish, are easily incited to insurrection and riot. In some part or other Ireland has very seldom been free from such disorders. In various parts of the country the people broke out into violence; and government, by treating these commotions as rebellion, at last converted them into rebellion.

In recording the circumstances of the rebellion, Plowden seems to have had two objects principally in view. First, to prove that the Catholics were neither first, nor chiefly concerned in it. And secondly, that the measures pursued to suppress it were marked with the most licentious cruelty and injustice. The first position we believe is pretty generally admitted. The great cry about liberty, antecedent to the French revolution, was raised chiefly by the protestant dissenters in the north. The persons who were most instrumental in forming the political societies in

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Ireland, and establishing union and concert between them, were Protestants of the established and dissenting churches; and though the rude Catholic peasantry and labourers formed the greater part of the disorderly assemblages who were persuaded to appear in arms against the government, Mr. Plowden thinks it by no means just to transfer on this account the chief guilt of the rebellion to the Catholic body. The ignorance and credulity of this part of the Catholics rendered them comparatively innocent causes of the evils in which they were engaged. And the measures of government were in many instances so unwise, as in some measure to lead and urge them on to more violent and extensive disorder, than they would have otherwise probably arrived at. The Peep-of day-Boys were their old plunderers and tormentors. These were encouraged by government to form themselves into associations under a new name, that of Orangemen, and to carry on their hostilities and depredations against the insurgent Catholics. These rebel-hunters, little less barbarous and ferocious than the Catholics, conducted themselves with eager and savage fury against their antagonists. They made little discrimination between those who had, and those who had not, been guilty of rebellion; and Catholics in general were too frequently treated as fit objects of all their sanguinary and desperate passions. That the minds of the unprotected Catholics, the miserable victims of these enormities, should thus be roused to greater fury, is not to be wondered at. And if ever an effectual scheme was devised to force a disorderly multitude to rise in arms, it was to set another disorderly multitude to plunder and destroy them. Mr. Plowden, in his detail of these painful transactions, is at great pains to make it appear that the heads of the Catholic body were at all times perfectly free from any share in the guilt, and exerted themselves to restrain its progress among the lower orders. The innocence of the greater part of the clergy he strenuously maintains, and exhibits many instances of their earnest and effectual endeavours to reclaim and correct their deluded followers.

The greater number of the facts which Plowden has collected respecting the rebellion, are instances of the ferocity and barbarity of the soldiers, or of the injustice and cruelty of the magistrates towards rebels, or persons supposed to be rebels, but who very often were perfectly innocent, though exposed to the greatest sufferings. This in an historian we must condemn. The instances of cruelty and ferocity of the rebels were numerous likewise; and as full a collection ought to have been given of the enormities on this side as on the other. Mr. Plowden shews no inclination to deny that the proceedings of the rebels were in many instances to the last degree atrocious: but while he records so many cases of barbarity exercised against them, he comprises the greater part of their inhuman outrages in a general admission. It is true that this omission had been amply supplied before; and Sir Richard Musgrave had performed the counterpart of what has been done by Mr. Plowden, having given a very full detail of all the abominations on the side of the rebels without one word concerning the like transactions on the side of their enemies. He goes, indeed, a good deal farther than Mr. Plowden; the chief intent of his book is to praise the conduct pursued toward the rebels; but Mr. Plowden neither offers praise nor palliation for the conduct of the rebels.

Mr. Plowden's picture is neither less true, nor less strong than that of Sir Richard Musgrave; and exhibits to us a scene, the reality of which nothing but irresistible proof could have led us to believe. Every thing which is perpetrated by the soldiery of an enraged and barbarous nation upon a conquered foe, the army of Great Britain in Ireland, according to Mr. Plowden, was permitted and encouraged to perpetrate against the miserable and deluded Irish. The houses throughout whole districts were plundered and burnt, and the inhabitants whether peaceable or disorderly, driven to desperation. General Officers have been heard to declare that in whole districts they and their men had not left a woman unviolated, and to add, that the bayonet soon removed all squeamishness. Men were pursued with a species of wantonness, and slaughtered in cold blood as if to make sport. A regular system of torture was established to obtain confessions. Persons often without even the imputation of guilt were taken and scourged, half-hanged, and taken down again to make them confess what they did, or did not know; and that not at the superintendence of as grave and orderly, however unjust court, as that of the Inquisition, but at the will and caprice of common soldiers. Picketing was a common mode of extorting confession. And various species of torture were invented by the soldiers to amuse themselves with the sufferings of their fellow-creatures. They cut short the hair on the heads of the wretches on whom they laid their hands, and clapped on them caps made of strong brown paper, smeared with heated pitch which could not be removed without the greatest pain, and often not without tearing great part of the skin from the head. Not to mention this system as connected with humanity, or wisdom, or the political maxims of a civilized and enlightened empire, the baneful effects upon the soldiers were clearly seen and strongly expressed by Sir Ralph Abercromby, when after inspecting the army upon his appointment to the chief command in Ireland, he issued general orders, beginning with these remarkable words, "The very disgraceful frequency of courts-martial, and the conduct of the troops in this kingdom, having too unfortunately proved the army to be in a state of licentiousness, which must render it formidable to every one but the enemy; the commander in chief thinks it necessary to demand," &c.

Mr. Plowden, having quoted at length in his history, a speech of the Earl of Moira delivered in the British house of lords, relating to this extraordinary subject, on the 22d of November, 1797; we think it proper to make a few extracts from it.

"Before God and my country," says his lordship, "I speak of what I have seen myself. What I have to speak of are not solitary and isolated measures, not partial abuses, but what is adopted as the system of government; I do not talk of a casual system, but of

one deliberately determined upon, and regularly persevered in. When we hear of a military government we must expect excesses, which are not all, I acknowledge, attributable to the government; but these I lay out of my consideration, I will speak only of the excesses that belong to, and proceed from the *system* pursued by the administration of Ireland. My lords, I have seen in Ireland the most absurd, as well as the most disgusting tyranny that any nation ever groaned under. I have said that if such a tyranny be persevered in, the consequence must inevitably be the deepest and most universal discontent, and even hatred to the English name. I have seen in that country a marked distinction made between the English and the Irish. I have seen troops sent full of this prejudice, that every inhabitant in that kingdom is a rebel to the British government. I have seen the most wanton insults practiced upon men of all ranks and conditions. I have seen the most grievous oppressions exercised in consequence of a presumption that the person who was the unfortunate object of such oppression was in hostility to the government; and yet that has been done in a part of the country as quiet and as free from disturbance as the city of London. Who states these things, my lords, should, I know, be prepared with proofs. I am prepared with them. Many of the circumstances are of my own knowledge; others I have received from such channels as will not permit me to hesitate one moment in giving credit to them."

"The *curfew* was ever considered by Britons as a badge of slavery. It was then practiced in Ireland with brutal rigor. He had known an instance where a master of a house had in vain pleaded to be allowed the use of a candle to enable the mother to administer relief to her daughter struggling in convulsive fits. One of the characteristic features of the Inquisition was; that, if the supposed culprit refused to acknowledge the crime with which he was charged, he was put to the rack to extort confession, by the pressure of torture, of whatever crime was alledged against him. The same proceedings had been introduced into Ireland. When a man was taken upon suspicion, he was put to the torture, nay if he was merely accused of concealing the guilt of another. The rack indeed was not at hand; but the punishment of picketing was in practice. He had known a man, in order to extort confession of a supposed crime, or of that of some his neighbours, picketed till he actually fainted; picketed a second time till he fainted again; and as soon as he came to himself, picketed a third time till he fainted, and all upon mere suspicion! Nor was this the only species of torture. Men had been taken and hung up till they were half dead, and then threatened with a repetition of the cruel treatment, unless they made confession of the imputed guilt!—These were not particular acts of cruelty; they formed a part of our system. They were notorious; and no person could say who would be the next victim of this oppression and cruelty. In the execution of the order for the people to deliver up their arms, the greatest cruelties had been committed: If any one was suspected to have concealed weapons of defence, his house, his furniture, and all his property was burnt: but this was not all; if it was supposed that any district had not surrendered all the arms which it contained, a party was sent out to collect the number at which it was rated; and in the execution of this order, thirty houses were sometimes burnt down in a single night."

"After the defeat" (at Carlow) says Mr. Plowden, "executions commenced here as they did elsewhere in this calamitous period; and about two hundred in a short time were hanged or shot according to martial law. Among the earliest victims was Sir Edward Crosbie, before whose house the rebel column had assembled, but who certainly had not accompanied them in their march; he was condemned and shot as an United Irishman; his friends affirm, with apparent truth, that he fell a sacrifice to the confusion which necessarily attends a trial by military law, in the rage of a rebellion, and that his innocence would have been manifested, if certain circumstances had been made public, which were *suppressed from delicacy to administration*, then supposed to be dangerously situated. It is reported that Sir Edward Crosbie had no further connection with the rebels, than that they exercised on a lawn before the house, which of course Sir Edward could not prevent."

Another source of cruelty and injustice was the discretionary powers entrusted to magistrates. Numerous instances are related by Mr. Plowden of the shocking abuse of this authority. Magistrates were allowed to receive secret information, and to proceed upon evidence which they were not obliged to disclose, to inflict any kind of punishment, and even death itself. We will give the particulars of one case related by Plowden.

Mr. Wright, a teacher of the French language in Clonmel, respected and employed by some of the most eminent persons in the town and neighbourhood, was subjected to punishment by Thomas Fitzgerald, high sheriff of Tipperary. After the rebellion, Mr. Wright brought an action against this magistrate, before Mr. Justice Chamberlain, and Lord Yelverton, at a time when prejudices ran amazingly high against persons accused of disloyalty; yet his innocence was rendered so manifest, that Mr. Fitzgerald was condemned to pay £2,000 damages. Mr. Wright, it appeared, had been informed that Mr. Fitzgerald had received some charges against him of a seditious nature. Immediately he repaired to the house of the magistrate to surrender himself for trial. Mr. Fitzgerald was not at home. He went directly for the same purpose to the house of another magistrate, who was also from home. Again, on the very same day, he went to Mr. Fitzgerald's house accompanied by another gentleman. When he had explained the cause of his coming, Mr. Fitzgerald cried, drawing his sword, "Down on your knees, you rebellious scoundrel, and receive your sentence." In vain did he protest his innocence, and implore a trial on his knees. Mr. Fitzgerald sentenced him first to be flogged and then shot. When the unfortunate man presented his keys, inviting them to search his papers, professing readiness to receive any punishment the proof of guilt could justify, Mr. Fitzgerald struck him, crying, "What! you Carmelite rascal, do you dare to speak

after sentence." And then ordered him to prison. Next day he was dragged to a ladder in Clonmell street to undergo his sentence. He knelt down in prayer with his hat before him. Mr. Fitzgerald came up, tore his hat from him, and trampled on it, seized him by the hair, dragged him to the earth, kicked him, and cut him across the forehead with his sword. He was then tied up to receive fifty lashes. While these were inflicting, Major Rial, an officer in the town came up, and asked what was the cause. Mr. Fitzgerald handed him a note, written in French, addressed to Mr. Wright. I do not understand French myself, said the magistrate, but you will find in that letter what would justify me in flogging the scoundrel to death. The major read it, and found as translated, these words:—"Sir, I am extremely sorry I cannot "wait on you at the hour appointed, being obliged to "attend Sir Laurence Parsons. Yours, Baron de Clues." Though Major Rial informed Fitzgerald that this was all that the note contained, he ordered fifty lashes more to be inflicted, and with such peculiar severity, that the bowels of the bleeding victim could be perceived to be convulsed and working through his wounds. Finding that he could not continue the application of his punishment on that part without cutting his way into the body, he ordered the waist-band of the sufferer's breeches to be cut open, and fifty more lashes to be inflicted on another part. He then left the unfortunate man bleeding and suspended, while he went to the barracks to demand a file of men to come and shoot him. Being refused by the commanding officer he came back, seeking for a rope to hang him; but could not find one. He then ordered him to be cut down, and sent back to prison, where he was confined in a dark small room, with nothing to lie on but a wretched pallet of straw, without any covering, and where he remained for six or seven days without receiving even any medical assistance.

It is, perhaps, fair to add, that many persons surely did not credit this story. Since a petition to parliament by Mr. Fitzgerald for indemnification, was strongly supported by the governing party; Mr. Fitzgerald was complimented as a most zealous, active, and useful magistrate, and afterwards received a considerable pension for his services. The speeches on this subject in the House of Commons, quoted by Plowden re well worth reading.

Mr. Plowden bestows merited praise upon Marquis Cornwallis, for putting an end to this system of severity and substituting a plan of conciliation and mildness. Few persons are acquainted with the difficulties which that venerable nobleman had to contend with in introducing so necessary a reform. He disobliged the whole of that violent party, who were the abettors and promoters of the violent measures. They could hardly refrain from accusing him, as they had been so much accustomed to do with regard to all other persons whom they disliked, of being favourable to the evil designs of their enemies; and they gave him a nick-name very expressive of the tendency of their minds. He hardly ever received any other title among them, than that of *croppy Corny*.

The applications too for continuance of severity made to his officers in every part of the country, harassed and tormented them; and sometimes gave occasion to ludicrous incidents. General Hunter exerted himself in a very meritorious manner to restore confidence and tranquillity in the county of Wexford. A curate was induced to wait on him, and to make report of a discovery of an intended massacre of the Protestants, on the horrid circumstances of which he expatiated at great length. The general heard him out with patience; and then with a stern countenance said to him, "Mr. *Massacre!* if you do not prove to me the circumstances you have related, I shall get you punished in the most exemplary manner, for raising false alarms, which have already proved so destructive to this unfortunate country."

Mr. Plowden's chapter on the Union, consists almost entirely of an account of the proceedings in the parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland. On this therefore we do not think it proper to detain our readers with any remarks, having occupied so much of their time with the preceding parts of this work. Mr. Plowden's book will not be perused by a very numerous class of readers. It is too long, and tedious; and too little recommended by any of the attractive qualities of good writing. But the man who is qualified to judge properly of the state of Ireland, will read it with interest; and not without advantage. When he has weighed the facts, accompanied with irresistible evidence, which are recorded in it, he will know better what conclusions ought to be drawn from the representations of those who are the patrons of a different set of opinions. We would not follow Mr. Plowden with great confidence, either in judging of the evidence of facts, or of the justice of principles; but where he has stated the evidence on which he founds his belief, we are enabled to judge for ourselves. And we are indebted to him for much valuable information on one of the most interesting subjects which can at present be offered to the attention of Britons—the present state of Ireland. M.

A View of the Moral State of Society at the Close of the Eighteenth Century. By John Bowles, *Esq.* 8vo. *Rivingtons.*

The principal contents of this pamphlet were published at the close of the last century, when they formed part of a much larger publication, which was intended to display the political as well as the moral state of society. The author, however, justly conceiving that of these two topics, the morality of society was by far the most important, resolved to publish that part by itself, and with this view continued it to the beginning of the present year.

The Introduction opens with a view of those reflections that are naturally suggested to the mind by the close of a century. The connection of morality with sound policy, and the present state of morals in this country are touched upon. The upper ranks in the state are reminded how much the moral sentiments, and, consequently, the well-being of society depend upon their conduct. The virtues of our Sovereign are justly celebrated, whilst a well-founded regret is expressed that his example should only excite a barren admiration amongst those who are more im-

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mediately within the sphere of its influence. The character of an illustrious personage is then canvassed. These are no times for flattery, and therefore the author points out what a person ought to be whose situation gives him an extensive influence over all ranks, but especially over that which is usually denominated fashionable life. That illustrious personage has "the most solemn obligations imposed on him by his birth," and the author is so antiquated as to imagine, that the duty of setting a good example by the observance of social and religious obligations, is much more necessary and solemn than the acquisition of any glory that would result from splendid and successful military atchievements. The principal work then commences with reflections on the low state of morality in the world, and then proceeds to examine the causes of this unfortunate truth. The chief of these is the pernicious influence of that system, called "modern" philosophy, which has for its object the subversion of every establishment, moral, political and religious. The incalculable evils resulting to society from this system are pourtrayed in strong and vivid colours. The unfavourable influence of luxury and excessive indulgence are then described, and the still more pernicious effects of this vice when combined with an extraordinary relaxation in moral and religious principles. The consequences of the prevalence of the new philosophy have been a spirit of scepticism, which has been encouraged by a lukewarmness in those who openly avow their belief in the doctrines and precepts of revealed religion; a disregard for the nuptial tie, and a deadening of the moral sense to a degree that threatens its total extinction. The decline of almost every virtuous principle is then exemplifyed in the little attention paid to the observance of the cardinal virtues, and in many other instances. In order to check the progress of these evils before they attain so great a height as to subvert the order of society, the author recommends it to all those who wish well to the cause of religion and virtue, of which there are many still in this country, to exert themselves in diffusing proper principles by every means in their power. This duty is particularly incumbent upon those, the sphere of whose influence is extended by the possession of wealth, rank or office. But above all the sacred profession imposes peculiar obligations to exertion upon its members. The superior purity of the Christian code is then pointed out, and the causes assigned why it produces so little effect; the chief of which is that sufficient attention is hardly ever paid to the instilling of religious principles into the minds of youth in the early stages of their education.—The author concludes with some remarks on the convulsions of the present times, which he considers as judgements from the Almighty in consequence of the crimes of the age, and observes that still more dreadful evils may be experienced unless prevented by a speedy amendment of our conduct. The following extract will give a specimen of the author's stile and manner:—

"In contemplating the manners of the highest ranks, it is impossible not to look with peculiar solicitude to that illustrious personage who in the course of nature and in the order of succession is one day to ascend the throne of this kingdom. The example of that personage is no less important, nay in some respects it is still more so in regard to the morals of the country, than that of his royal sire. But one degree removed from the throne, he is so elevated as to be an object of universal and constant attention, but possessing at the same time in common with all his inferiors, the character of *subject*, he can mix in society in a manner which would be incompatible with the dignity of the Sovereign. He becomes of course the attractive center of that brilliant circle, which is usually denominated fashionable life, and his attractive powers are greatly increased by the disposition which mankind have ever displayed, and ever will display, to worship the rising sun. For this reason the conduct of an Heir Apparent, must have an effect upon the public morals which it is difficult adequately to describe. Whatever he does must promote the general interests either of vice or virtue. Even actions in themselves indifferent derive an importance from the station of such an agent, and operate upon the manners which have a powerful influence upon the morals of the community. What an ascendancy then upon those morals must belong to the aggregate of his character, and to the tenor of his life! If by a regular and devout attendance upon divine worship, he display a sincere and ardent piety towards that great and aweful being, who placed him in his high situation for the benefit of millions of the human race, and to whom he is responsible for the use he makes of his rank and influence: if he exhibit to the countless multitudes who are ever gazing upon him, a pattern of filial duty, of conjugal fidelity, of paternal care, of domestic virtue, of personal regularity, temperance and self command; if he avail himself of the high authority which must be attached to his sentiments by manifesting his abhorrence of every species of vice, and by discountenancing the profane and the dissolute; if he promote that respect for the nuptial tie which next to religious principle is the main bond of society: if, in short, he invigorate by all the means in his power those principles, dispositions and habits which are inculcated and prescribed by the sacred rules of Christian morality; then must he be a blessing of inestimable value to his country and to the world: * *: then will he most effectually contribute to the deliverance of the people whom he expects hereafter to govern from that unexampled state of danger to which in common with the whole civilized world they are now exposed."

In the general reasoning of the author upon the alarming levity of morals, indifference with regard to religion, and open infidelity, and in the means proposed to check the progress of vice, so far as they go, we most cordially agree. But in his zeal for combating the levelling principle, he often appears to fall into the opposite extreme. In order to avoid the evils that may be apprehended from disobedience to the laws, he seems to inculcate the doctrine of passive obedience. The stile is neither elegant, nor polished, but sufficiently perspicuous. Setting aside then some sentiments that belong to the author's peculiar chapter of politics, which are evidently highly aristocratical, his work is a valuable performance, and calculated to produce many good effects in the community. D.

Amasina; or, the American Foundling. 2 vols. 12mo. Lane.

This work, we are informed in the preface, is the production of a female by whom it was completed before she attained her *fifteenth* year. Before we examine its merits, it will be proper to present our readers with a sketch of the fable:—

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The heroine of the tale is found when an infant by a Mrs. Clindillon, exposed near her habitation in America. Mrs. Clindillon reared and educated the child as her own, and upon the loss of her husband some time after, returned to Ireland, her native country. The story commences when the heroine has become a young woman, and is written in the epistolary form. She is, we are told at the beginning, a *phœnix*, and a lover of sentiment, a circumstance that is afterwards fully verifyed. It is not to be supposed that such a paragon should pass unnoticed. An ill-looking fellow accordingly by a stratagem inveigles her away from the theatre, a thing easily done, for heroines cannot be expected to have all their senses about them. But the lover did not understand with whom he had to deal, for though the heroine's feelings were "imperiously distressing, she licensed her voice to the deepest pitch of outrageous lunacy, and almost *looked into atoms*" the terrified object of her resentment who fled with precipitation. But heroines are brought into these situations *as naturally as if it were o' purpose*, that some Mars-like Adonis may have an opportunity of rescuing the fair nymphs from thraldom. Accordingly, Lord Milantine, thrice happy youth, forces the castle, conquers the dragon and carries away the prize. He of course becomes enamoured, but his father who knew not that a heroine, though in rags, is proved "by inheriting a high unbending spirit," that disdains to claim kindred with the vulgar, to be of noble blood, refuses to consent to the union of his son with a foundling. The usual emotions are exhibited on the occasion, and the perjured swain marries another, but as in duty bound dies for love of the "Seraph" whom he had forsaken. The heroine is in the utmost distress on account of the indignity she had sustained, when a personage appears, whose star and garter, whose indescribable something, &c. &c. seemed *magnetically* to proclaim him fit to be the father of a heroine, and accordingly the neglected foundling is found to be the daughter of the Earl of Heryntown. A woman out of pure love to her own children had run away with the heroine in miniature for the sake of her clothes, *poisoned* her attendant, carried the infant to America, and exposed her as above related. This story she told on her death bed (the usual way) to the Earl, who sought his daughter, and is amazed at the irresistible *magnetism* of her attractions." Our heroine instead of Henrietta Hartley, becomes Lady Amasina Louisa Bellamy, a name yielding only to that of the illustrious Carolina Wilhelmina Amelia Skeggs. "The eyes of the universe were now fixed upon her to witness the extravagance of her emotions," and in order to display "the magnetism of her attractions," to greater advantage, she visits the Earl of Delwick. Here she sees the picture of "a perfect Adonis" with whom her friend was in love, but who appeared to her well calculated to be the husband of a heroine. For him (heroines are fond of poetic scraps) she would

> "Pass through the bitterest scenes without a pang,
> Swim undismayed through floods of *human sang*."

The old Duke has the presumption to solicit her hand in marriage, for which she most heroically threatens to cuckold him. Her beloved turns out to be son of the Duke's chaplain. What a blow for heroines such as her!! the son of a prosing parson! What heroine ever made such a choice. But he was a soldier, and heroines are fond of scarlet. He becomes enamoured, tells the soft tale, is at first rejected with all due decorum, but the heroine terrified lest he should suspect that she loved another, "while the blushes of self-accusation scorched her vitals," writes to set him right on that point. At a time when "every thing conspired to resist the colder passions, and when none could think of worldly prudence, or worldly resolutions," an explanation takes place. With him "she could not feel the drops falling from a roofless cabin, nor the cold penetrating through a ragged covering, (the reader will remember that though heroines talk of rags and roofless cabins, they have in reality an utter abhorrence of both.) But still the beloved of the heroine is a parson's son, which is contrary to all rule and precedent, but fortune who would "swim through floods of *human sang*," to relieve a heroine in extremity, settles the matter by the old way of an exchange. The chaplain's wife confesses on her death-bed, that she had stolen the young Marquis of Delwick, and put her own son in his stead. Before the joy at this surprising discovery (surprising we mean in common life, for such things happen every day in the adventures of heroines) was well over, the youth is ordered with his regiment to America. Sometime afterwards, news is brought of his death, and the heroine becomes a "licentious maniac whose yells are deep, terrific and appalling." She recovers, however, in the usual time, and is somewhat consoled, when another lover solicits her hand. Him she accompanies to the altar, where, the moment she is going to give her hand away, the old lover returns alive from America as usual in such cases, and claims his prior right. She disposes of the captive hearts in her possession amongst her humble female friends, who admire her generosity, and are glad to boast all their lives, that their husbands have been in love with a heroine. She herself becomes Marchioness of Delwick, and the novel concludes with the usual forms and ceremonies.

Such is the composition, some of whose sublime sentiments and expressions we have contrived to give our readers by way of specimen. The fair authoress solicits the favour of the patronizers of *merit* to the offspring of *three Lustres*, and certainly to have imbibed the quantity of matter from novels and romances that enabled her before the age of fifteen to produce such an offspring as this, bespeaks merit of no ordinary kind. Yet we, who must confess a deplorable deficiency in taste for heroics, cannot help thinking that the world would be no worse than it is, if young misses would employ themselves in sewing their samplers and dressing their dolls, instead of beginning immediately to *scratch*, as soon as they are seized with what Horace calls the *writing itch*. It may for what we know be excellent sport for young authoresses to store up in their brains all the dregs of the press, and then pour them in a mixed polluted stream upon the world to besmear every one who has not prudence enough to keep out of the way; but they should consider that though this may be sport for them, it is death for us, and all those who either from a vitiated taste,

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or from compulsion, are obliged to swallow the unwholesome draught. This offspring of *three Lustres*, which we are strongly inclined to believe is an old friend with a face newly vamped up, we are told, is a copy from nature. By this must be meant *heroic nature*, for neither the sentiments, language, nor style, are such as can be intelligible to ordinary capacities. The ordinary part of mankind, dull souls, are human beings, and cannot understand "the irresistible magnetism of female attractions," nor the "immaculate adherence" of cherubs, seraphs, angels, &c. &c. As little can they follow a heroine through her man *euvres*, murdered French, attempts at Latin, and her "swimmings through floods of *human sang*." To scribbling misses of *three lustres*, we would recommend to attend to the advice of Horace, and keep their pieces nine years, at the end of which time they may have acquired discretion enough to throw them into the fire.

D.

The Watch Tower, an Historical Romance, in five Volumes. By T. I. Horsley Curties. Author of Ethelwina, Ancient Records, and the Scottish Legend. Hurst, Paternoster-Row.

The events in this romance are interwoven with the incidents in the history of Scotland from the reign of Baliol till the final expulsion of the English from that country by Robert Bruce. The earl of Ulthona, a Scottish island, married Elwina, who had been before beloved by Morcar, chief of Stroma, a rock or island in the neighbourhood. Morcar in order to be revenged on his rival, enters the dwelling of Ulthona in the night-time, with a band of assassins, murders the earl, his wife, and domestics, carries away the two sons of Ulthona and then sets fire to the castle to prevent detection. He attempts to assassinate Sigismorn and Adelbert the children of his rival, but they are saved by one of his female domestics who flies with them to a watch tower on the island of Ulthona, where they are concealed and educated by a monk, till they grow up to be young men. Having contrived to escape, they arrive by accident at the castle of Ulthona, where they meet with many surprizing adventures. His father's ghost appears to Sigismorn, and exhorts him to revenge his murder. In exploring the castle he discovers Certaldo, chief of Duncluthine, with his daughter Imogen, who had sought refuge in its desolate walls, from the pursuit of concealed foes. Morcar finds out their retreat, and gets possession of Adelbert in the absence of Sigismorn who afterwards joins the standard of Robert Bruce. The romance then leaves the youths of Ulthona, and proceeds with the history of Imogen, princess of Duncluthine, between whom and Sigismorn, a mutual passion must, by all the laws of romance, be supposed to exist. After many perilous adventures, during which she was separated from her father, and having almost annihilated several daring wights, who aspired to the honour of her hand, with the majestic dignity of her looks, she falls at length into the power of Morcar, who conducts her to the fortress of Stroma, where the principal personages of the story are already confined, to use the words of the Brentford orator, in damp cells and dismal dungeons. He falls in love with Imogen as usual on such occasions, and puts Sigismorn and his brother Adelbert to death. Robert Bruce after the battle of Banockburn, surprizes the castle of Stroma. Morcar is taken, and to escape a public execution kills himself. The magic wand of romance raises Sigismorn and Adelbert from the dead, the former of whom is married to Imogen, as the lovers of romance need scarcely be told.

With regard to the incidents of this work, they are almost always such as might raise a blush on the cheek of credulity. The author himself appears to have had some idea, that they were "the troubled visions of a sleeping fancy." And whoever reads the book will have little hesitation in adopting his opinion. The chief province of a romance is to give a picture of the times in which the incidents are supposed to have happened, and if it fails in this, it is worse than nothing. "The troubled visions" are in this respect deplorably deficient. One thing however makes in favour of the author. The romances of Lewis are extravagant, but written in a manner and stile that fascinates the attention, and leaves the unnatural impression deep and lasting. To this objection the work before us is not liable. The most vitiated taste can scarcely be gratified by extravagant and improbable events related in a dull and slovenly manner, and in a stile that would disgust affectation itself. The author (God help him) pretends to imitate the imagery and manner of Ossian, and the consequence is such as might be expected: he has experienced the fate of the owl, who presumed to gaze at the sun like the eagle. The characters, if they may be called such, are all imperfectly drawn, except Morcar, who is made a remorseless villain whose trade is assassination, with hardly a feature that can be considered as human. The author intended to draw a barbarian, and has produced a fiend. The stile is such as almost defies all power of description. It is a rumbling jargon in general without meaning, stiff, inflated and *ponderous*, a favourite word with our author of which none will doubt the propriety. Some idea of it may perhaps be conceived, by supposing it to be "bombast run mad." The work upon the whole can scarcely be better described than in the words of the author himself. It is a "mystic vision flashing terrible sparks of incomprehensible fury, and mingled ghastly evidences of shocking terror."

D.

List of New Publications from Feb. 1, to Feb. 16, 1804. Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, TRAVELS, &c.

Indian Recreations; consisting chiefly of Strictures on the Domestic and Rural Economy of the Mohammedans and Hindoos. By the Rev. William Tennant, LL.D. S.A.M. 2 vols. 8vo. (*) 18s.

An Epitome of the History of the Island of Malta and Gozo. By Charles Wilkinson, foolscap 8vo. (*) 6s.

Observations made at Paris during the Peace; and Remarks in a Tour from London to Paris, through Picardy, and to England by the route of Normandy. By Edmund John Eyre. 8vo. (*)

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POLITICS.

Sketches of the intrinsic Strength, Military and Naval force of France and Russia: with Remarks on their present Connection, political Influence, and future Projects. small 4to. * 12*s.*

Plan of National Improvement, pointing out the means to render Great Britain independent of Supplies of Corn from abroad, to extend the British Fisheries, and augment the Military and Naval strength of the Empire, without expense to the Public, &c. &c. small 4to. * 12*s.*

Remarks on the Correspondence between His Majesty, the Prince of Wales, Duke of York, and Mr. Addington; relative to the Prince's Application for an ostensible Station in the Army at this momentous Crisis. In a Letter to the Right Honourable Henry Addington. With a Supplement, containing Copies of the Original Letters. * 2*s.*

The Correspondence between the Right Hon. Lord Redesdale, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, and the Right Hon. the Earl of Fingall, &c. &c. from the 23th of August to the 8th of September, 1803. 1*s.* 6*d.*

As a composition this does not require criticism. With regard to the subject we shall offer our opinion some time hereafter in another part of the Journal.

A Reply to a Plain Answer; being a Refutation of Invectives against Ministers, in an Appeal to conduct. By an Impartial Observer. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

A warm panegyric upon the conduct of the present ministers, which will not make many converts to their cause.

Thoughts on the Old and New Administrations; with a comparative View of their Claims to Public Favor. By a Civil Volunteer. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Political Remarks and Observations. By a Medical Gentleman. 1*s.* 6*d.*

These remarks and observations might all have been made by any honest man or men, at their own fire-sides, as well as by a medical gentleman, who accompanied the late expedition to Egypt.

Letters written by Henry Haldane, Esq. to the Right Honble. the Earl of Chatham. * 1*s.* 6*d.*

THEOLOGY.

The Guide to Immortality; or Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Christ by the Four Evangelists, digested into one continued Narrative, &c. &c. 3 vols. 8vo. * 1*l.* 4*s.* 0*d.*

Divine Judgments on Guilty Nations, their Causes and Effects considered: in a Discourse, on the late Fast: By R. Aspland, with a Preface and Notes. By B. Flower. 2*s.*

LAW.

Notes of Opinions and Judgments delivered in different Courts by the Lord Chief Justice Wilmot, 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.*

An Examination of all the Statutes respecting the Volunteers; in which the Appointment of the Officers, the Right to Resign, and the Exemptions and Obligations are fully considered. By a Barrister and a Volunteer. 1*s.*

MEDICINE.

Observations on Inguinal and Congenital Hernia.—By Robert Cooper, F.R.S. folio. 2*l.* 2*s.*

SCIENCE.

Elements of Science and Art, being a familiar Introduction to Natural Philosophy and Chemistry; together with their application to a Variety of Elegant and Useful Arts. By John Imison, 2 vols. 8vo. * 1*l.* 5*s.* 0*d.*

The Grammar of Botany, or Easy Introduction to this Science; being an Abridgement of the Philosophy of Botany. With Plates. By Robert John Thornton, M.D. No. I. 3*s.*

Newton Refuted; a Geographical, Nautical and Mechanical View of the Universe. By W. Parkes. 1*s.*

The nature of this eccentric publication is obvious from its title. This gentleman having, it appears, been accustomed to take observations at sea, took it into his wise head that these were inconsistent with the Newtonian philosophy, which he immediately concluded to be erroneous, falling into the same error as a great many sagacious people, who look for the cause of their follies every where, except in the precise place where it is really to be found, viz.—in their own brains. From reading the title of this shilling refutation, one would immediately have concluded that it was intended as a burlesque upon those who are resolved to doubt of every thing, however evident, were it not that the gravity of the author precludes such a supposition. He makes it a serious subject of complaint, that several philosophers and learned men, to whom he *condescendingly* offered to prove the *absurdity* of the Newtonian philosophy, refused to listen to his lectures. He even undertook to prove that Sir Isaac Newton was ignorant of astronomy, mathematics, mechanism and navigation, and in order to shame the fools of philosophers who refused to adopt his sublime ideas, he has appealed to the world. "Good soul!! Sir Isaac Newton's philosophy is to be overturned by his shilling pamphlet!!" The modesty of the gentleman is of a piece with his philosophy.

POETRY.

Poesie Liriche di Leucippo Egineo, 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

These poems consist of an ode to peace, a sort of Pastoral, a piece on the Rise and Fall of Nations, and a couple of Sonnets, with a very liberal quantity of annotations subjoined to each Poem. The annotations indeed form the greatest part of the work, if we count by lines and words; but the text, by favour of the printer, has the decided majority in pages. Perhaps indeed, it was the intention of the author to announce the quality of each particular part by the bulk of the type and the wideness between the lines; for we find nearly thirty lines of the annotations easily assorted, with very good elbow room in one page; while the poem on the Rise and Fall of Nations, fills a page with eighteen lines; and of the still prettier little verses of the canzonetta Campestre, a dozen lines are reckoned quite a sufficient ornament for a very smart hot-pressed octavo page. To apply the rude lash of criticism to such very pretty little poetry, accompanied by such smart handmaids of annotations, would be extremely ungenteel. In the philosophical poem on the Rise and Fall of Nations, we have the important discovery dwelt upon at great length, that nations, when good, prosper, and when vicious, become unfortunate. The name of *Satan*, who is a great agent in this poem, is liberally introduced with much advantage to the melody, and great effect to the reasoning. We shall

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not be more copious in our criticisms at present, as we look forward with confidence to a speedy translation of the work into very neat English verse, by some of our Anacreontic poets at the court end of the town.

Poems. By George Richards, M.A. 2 vols. foolscap. 10*s.* 6*d.*

The Wild Wreath. Dedicated by Permission to H. R. H. the Duchess of York. By M. E. Robinson, 8vo. 7*s.*

The Wild Wreath is a collection of what are very aptly termed *fugitive pieces*, by various hands. Most of them are by Mrs. Robinson, several by M. G. Lewis, so noted in the annals of Terror, and among other distinguished courtly poets, we find one very grave and solemn piece, in blank verse, on a fan, by the Honble. T. I. Twisleton. After having mentioned the rank of the writers and of the patroness, we desist from farther criticism, assured that the work will be read among the fashionable circles, with a very different relish from what was felt for it by us, who are not so gallant as to praise fustian, even from the pen of a fair lady, nor so courtly as to admire dullness even when squeezed out of right honourable brains.

Fables; consisting of Select Parts from Dante, Berni, Chaucer and Ariosto; imitated in English Heroic Verse. By Richard Wharton, Esq. M. P. * 5*s.* 6*d.*

A Supplementary Epistle to the Correspondence between Mr. Bowles and Mr. Adam. Addressed to the Man who calls himself a Christian, 4to. 2*s.*

This is a poem intended to praise the late Duke of Bedford, and abuse Mr. Bowles. The latter is done with great freedom. A hypocrite; a canter of old women out of treats and dinners; a barterer of conscience for the loaves and fishes; a pensioned sycophant, are some of the epithets employed. Imputations like these ought to be well supported. With regard to that we are no judges; not knowing enough of Mr. Bowles, either to contradict or affirm them.

The Poetical Works of John Langhorne, D.D. Rector of Blagdon, Somersetshire, and Prebendary of Wells; to which are prefixed, Memoirs of the Author. By his Son, the Rev. I. T. Langhorne, LL.B. Vicar of Harmondsworth and Drayton, Middlesex, 2 vols. 12mo. 12*s.*

This is merely a republication of the poems of Dr. Langhorne. They are dedicated by the son to the Earl of Radnor, and accompanied by a life of the Author, shortly mentioning the leading particulars of his history, and the principal traits of his character, with the respect, and perhaps partiality due from a son to a father, but not without modesty, and candour.

NOVELS.

Maids as they Are Not, and Wives as they Are, a Novel. By Mrs. Martha Homely, 2 vols. 12mo. 14*s.*

Don Raphael; a Romance. By G. Walker, Author of The Three Spaniards, &c. 3 vols. 12mo. 13*s.* 6*d.*

The Swiss Emigrants, a Tale. 12mo. 4*s.*

The object of this tale appears to be to display the effects of the late Invasion on the innocent and inoffensive inhabitants of Switzerland. It consists principally of the adventures of a gentleman, who had retired to the village of Langen, which after the invasion was totally deserted, part of the inhabitants having fallen in opposing the French; and the rest emigrated. This man had employed himself in improving the village of Langen; and the manners of its inhabitants are represented in a most natural and simple manner. The tale is told in a neat, plain stile, suited to the subject, and cannot fail to be perused with pleasure, by the reader of taste and sensibility.

DRAMA.

Almahide and Hamet, a Tragedy, in Five Acts; to which is prefixed a Letter to John P. Kemble, Esq. on Dramatic Composition. By Benjamin Heath Malkin, Esq. M. A. * 6*s.*

The Soldier's Daughter, a Comedy. By Mr. Cherry, 2*s.* 6*d.*

MISCELLANIES.

An Essay on the Art of Ingeniously Tormenting; with proper Rules for the Exercise of that amusing Study. Humbly addressed to the Master, Husband, Wife, Friend, &c. With some General Instructions for Plaguing all your acquaintance, 12mo.

This elegant edition is dedicated by the Invisible Girl, to the Honourable Mrs. —— the ingenious tormentor of the present age; and we are afterwards informed by the Editor, who subscribes himself I. S. C. that it was originally written by Miss Jane Collier, the eldest sister of Dr. Collier of the Commons; who was the intimate friend of the celebrated Fielding, and his sister Sarah. The work dates its commencement from a party, in which Dr. *Collier* was present. Miss Collier we find, enjoyed the friendship and confidence of the celebrated *Richardson*.

African Scenery and Animals: a Series of Prints, with descriptive Letter Press, representing Views near the Cape of Good Hope, and in the interior of the Country, the Appearance and Costume of several Tribes of the Natives; and also various Animals found in that part of the Globe, from Drawings taken from Nature. By Samuel Daniell, Engraved by himself, and coloured to imitate the original Drawings. To be completed in Ten Numbers, each containing three Prints. Size of the Prints, 18 inches by thirteen. First Number. 2*l.* 2*s.*

Many of the Quadrupeds that will be represented in this beautiful work, have been hitherto unknown to Europeans —as an instance we extract from this Number some account of the Gnoo.

"The Gnoo, thus called by the Hottentots, seems to be of a mixed nature; made up of the bull, the horse, and antelope. Of all the animals that scour the plains of southern Africa, the Gnoo is the swiftest; and from its fierce and restless disposition, the Dutch have given it the name of Wildebeest. The usual height of this animal is three feet eight inches. They are commonly seen in herds from fifty to one hundred, though not unfrequently found feeding with Hartebeests, Ostriches, Quachas, and Elands."

Letters of Consolation and Advice, from a Father to his Daughter, on the Death of her Sister. 3*s.* 6*d.*

Real grief is seldom soothed by laboured lectures on consolation. This observation in some degree applies to these letters; yet for the most part they breathe a spirit of unaffected piety which renders them well calculated to produce the best effects upon the mind of the reader in a moral and religious point of view. The sources of consolation are drawn from religion, where only real consolation can be found in deep affliction. Although the letters cannot be said to contain any thing of uncommon excellence, yet the comforts that are to be derived from the sacred volume in times of severe trial, are displayed in a concise and impressive manner.

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The Report of the Evidence, and other Proceedings in Parliament, respecting the invention of the Life-Boat, also several other authentic Documents, illustrating the Origin, Principles, and Construction of the Life Boat, and its perfect security in the most turbulent Sea, with Practical Directions for the management of Life-Boats. By Henry Greathead, of South Shields. 2*s*.

This little publication forms a collection of the proceedings in different places relative to the invention of the life-boat. A description of the nature of this invention is given, and the means by which it is made to preserve its equilibrium in the roughest seas. The eminent success which has attended the life-boat in the preservation of the most useful lives, must render this pamphlet generally interesting.

Beauties of Literature; or, Cabinet of Genius. Containing the Beauties of Zimmerman. By Alexander Campbell, M.A. vol. 1. 3*s*. 6*d*.

This book from its title would appear to be the first volume of a series of "Beauties" with which the author intends to favour the world. Zimmerman is the first victim, and we may shortly expect to see many other writers of reputation reduced to shreds and patches, if this offering should be well received. The disgraceful practice of cutting an author to pieces, has of late become but too frequent. It is to be wished that for the encouragement of learning and genius, a law were made by which it might be rendered felony without benefit of clergy, thus to tear a book to tatters. Those who are disposed to be guilty of such proceedings, had better beware however, as it is by no means agreed whether they may not be indicted upon the statute for preventing unlawful conspiracies, as it is clear that they cheat his Majesty's subjects by making them pay several times for the same article under a different form. The present work is selected with sufficient taste, and is therefore entitled to all the merit that can be justly claimed by a publication of such a description. But every friend of genius must fervently join in the wish that some punishment were appointed for the crime of *murdering* authors after they are *dead*.

A Complete Analysis of the German Language, or, a Philological and Grammatical View of its Construction, Analogies, and various Properties. By Dr. Render. 8vo. * 12*s*.

The Confessions of J. Lackington, late Bookseller at the Temple of the Muses (now retired,) in a Series of Letters to a Friend. To which are added, Two Letters on the bad Consequences of having Daughters educated at Boarding-Schools. 12mo. * 2*s*.

Juvenile Dialogues, French and English, in short and easy Words to facilitate the Reading of French. By the Countess de Fouchecour. 18mo. 1*s*. 6*d*.

ORIGINAL BIOGRAPHY.

Memoir of the late Sir William Hamilton, K. B.

The respectable person, of whom we are about to give a short account, was born in Scotland, in 1730. Of his education or of his noble birth, we do not think it necessary to make any particular mention; it is enough to say, that of the former he had the best that could be procured in a country which, in the system and practice of public instruction, excells all nations of Europe; and that the family of Hamilton has, for centuries, been one of the first in Scotland. We must however notice, that the branch of the family to which Sir William belonged, was considerably reduced in circumstances at the time of his birth; he himself having repeatedly declared to his friends in Naples, that *he was condemned to make his way in the world with an illustrious name and a thousand pounds.*

He was not, however, doomed to spend many years of his youth in such narrow circumstances; as in 1755, he married a young lady of amiable character and most respectable connections, with whom he received a fortune of five thousand pounds a year—a large fortune, when compared with his sober and philosophical turn of mind, although of no great consideration, when contrasted with what might have descended to him from his illustrious ancestors.

Whether, after this marriage, Mr. Hamilton filled any place under government at home, we are not informed; as we have neither seen his name in the public records of those times, nor ever learned any particulars of this kind from himself or his friends.

The active and important part of his life began, indeed, from the moment in which he entered the diplomatic line, and we may consider it as a circumstance peculiarly fortunate for the literary world, that he was destined to remain, nearly the rest of his life, in a country truly classical, in regard to the Fine Arts and Natural History—pursuits for which he had early evinced the greatest predilection.

Mr. Hamilton was appointed ambassador to the Court of Naples in 1764; and from that time to the year 1800, in which he was recalled, it may be said, with the strictest justice, that he did much more for the advancement of the fine arts, natural history, and antiquities, than any individual or corporation in that metropolis; perhaps, also, more than the government itself. He in some measure made amends for the notorious and incurable inertness of the inhabitants of the country in which he happened to reside—an inertness detrimental to themselves alone, in objects open to the industry and researches of other countries, but to society in general, in those singular districts of learning of which they are the exclusive proprietors.

The art of Painting, in the first place, had been so disregarded, that, except for the labours of two or three individuals of the crude and precipitate school of Solimene, whose names are not worth mentioning, people might have fancied that Naples was situated in another hemisphere than her neighbouring cities Rome and Florence. That polite art which exhibits the most striking proofs of the grandeur and magnificence of a metropolis, was still less cultivated than her sister art of Painting, and such indeed was the general style of public and private buildings in Naples, that a man of taste would rather fancy her a city of Spain or Turkey, than of Italy. The national antiquities and bibliographical collections had been so neglected, that not one establishment of this kind was found in a metropolis ranking third in Europe. The Roman and Grecian antiquities had been no better regarded. Excepting *Capua dives* and its surrounding *pulcherrima Campaniæ plaga*, which, as early as the middle of the 17th century had been illustrated by

the meritorious labours of Pellegrini, not a single attempt had yet been made to rescue from oblivion the remainder of the classical ground in the several provinces. The Apulian shores, so justly celebrated in the remotest antiquity for their lofty and populous cities, had not attracted the least attention. The southern Calabria, that happy seat of primitive Greek colonization, was full as much disregarded. The island of Capri remained in the deepest obscurity. Pozzuoli, and the adjacent places had only popular guides, full of traditions and absurdities. Pompeii, discovered through accident as early as 1750 by some peasants, became not an object of consideration till 1755, and even from that time to 1764, so few hands and so little zeal had been employed in its excavations, that no idea could be formed of the extent and topography of the place. And we cannot better close this disgusting picture than by stating that the unrivalled remains of ancient architecture in Pæstum, unquestionably the finest pieces of antiquity in Europe, had remained unnoticed till the middle of the last century, when Baron Antonini, a Salernitan nobleman, gave some hints of their importance; and even after that period, European literature stood indebted to the zeal of foreigners for their historical and descriptive account; as the Parmesan count of Gazola, general of artillery in Naples, was the first, who, in 1755, visited the place, and caused plans of it to be drawn by the architects in his company; and Mr. Soufflot, availing himself of the plans of the Count, published them on his return to Paris, where, and at London, all other works on the subject, were afterwards published.

Give me, says Hume, a country in which astronomy is unknown, and public morals neglected, and I shall soon conclude, that not a single workman can be found in it capable of producing a finished piece of workmanship. Admitting this metaphysical truth, lasting as human nature, our readers may believe, from the preceding statement, that the knowledge of Natural History, was, in the country of which we speak, as low as of antiquities and polite arts. To the disgrace of this country indeed, it was not before the year 1734, that a history of Mount Vesuvius had been published by a gentleman of the name of Sorrentini, whereas Sicily itself, so early as the year 1669, had produced a similar work on Etna, by Borelli; in the year 1737, a few philosophical notions respecting Vesuvius had been started by the physician Serao; even after such an attempt, no farther attention was paid to that grand object till 1751, when Father della Torre published another work upon it; the first person who had the curiosity to observe the crater was Mr. Rigade, in the service of the French ambassador, in 1749; the extinct volcanoes, and the mephitic soil of Pozzuoli and its neighbourhood were first illustrated by two foreigners, the Abbé Nollet, in 1749, and M. de la Condamine in 1755; and the remainder of the Phlegrean fields, through the extensive province of Campania, had been left entirely unnoticed.

This being in Naples the state of those branches of knowledge, which constituted Mr. Hamilton's pursuits, we shall give a *sketch* of what he performed in each of them. As far as early and intense application may be considered proofs of a predominant passion, it appears that the objects of Natural History chiefly engaged his attention. In a short period from his arrival, he had already collected a vast number of articles connected with this science, and had thus formed a valuable cabinet, of which, according to the expression of one of his friends, "he could be himself the ablest demonstrator." Between the year 1764, and the middle of 1767, he visited Vesuvius no less than twenty-two times, and had as often observed the different spots around Naples, affected by volcanic eruptions; and it was universally remarked by those who had the pleasure to accompany him in these excursions, that he was the best and most instructive "*Cicerone*" that could possibly be found for such occasions. He also visited Mount Etna, and the Eolian islands, places which had not been examined with such attention before. The phenomena which their surface presented to his view did not satisfy his curiosity: he observed the interior parts of the soil, and every minute circumstance that attended the operations of nature: not one of the different substances which had ever issued from these volcanoes was left unnoticed. In all his excursions he was constantly accompanied by an artist of great merit, Mr. Fabris, who drew plans and delineated such objects as were most interesting and striking.

These observations, though since reduced to systematic works, were first communicated in partial letters to the Royal Society, from 1766 to 1779; in whose Transactions for the above years and also in the Annual Register, these letters are preserved; the perusal of which will amply gratify those who are fond of curious incidents, and personal anecdotes relating to the subject of this memoir.

The works themselves were two: viz. *Observations on Mount Vesuvius, Mount Etna, and other Volcanoes of the Two Sicilies*, which appeared in 1772, in 8vo. in London, and the *Campi Phlegræi*, in two vols. folio, published at Naples in 1776. In the former his chief position was, "that Volcanoes lie dormant for several years, nay even for centuries." "When I arrived," says he, "at Naples, Vesuvius was quiet, very seldom was smoke visible on its top; in the year 1766, it seemed to take fire, and has never since been three months without either throwing up red hot stones, or disgorging streams of lava; nor has its crater been ever free from smoke. At Naples, when a lava appears, and not till then, it is styled an eruption; whereas I look upon the five nominal eruptions I have been witness to, from March 1766 to May 1771, as in effect but one continued eruption.—It is certain that by constant attention to the smoke that issues from the crater, a very good guess may be given as to the degree of fermentation within the volcano. By this alone I foretold the two last eruptions, and by another very simple observation, I pointed out some time before, the very spot from whence the lava has issued. When the cone of Vesuvius was covered with snow, I remarked a spot on which it would not lie."

The Campi Phlegræi were chiefly calculated to exhibit the view of the several spots already described. The drawings, by Mr. Fabris, were coloured with surprizing art and great force of expression: they re-

presented nature with the utmost accuracy and truth. Each plate was accompanied by concise and perspicuous explanations in English and French. In the first volume, a large map was also exhibited of the gulph of Naples and the country contiguous, which is unrivalled for its beauty and splendor. And in the author's letter to Sir John Pringle, dated Naples, May 2, 1776, (which may be considered as a dedication of the work to the Royal Society) some additional observations on the subject were communicated, which had not been inserted either in the partial letters to the late Mr. Maty, or in the 8vo edition of them in 1772. In short, the publication was so accurate, so splendid, and so magnificent, as to have excited a surprize how such an invaluable performance could make its appearance in the south of Italy.

A new phenomenon, however, occurred after this publication, which was too striking not to excite a peculiar attention in our ingenious naturalist, and not to engage him in a new work.—We allude to the great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, on the 8th August 1779, and to the *Supplement* to the *Campi Phlegræi*, to which it gave rise. As was his custom, Mr. Hamilton had communicated a description of that wonderful event to the Royal Society, which was printed in the first part of the Philosophical Transactions for the year 1780. He afterwards, however, as he had done with his former ones, collected these observations, and formed of them a regular work. In the year of the great eruption, he published, in Naples, a fine edition of the above mentioned book, beautifully illustrated by coloured prints, from the drawings of the same artist Peter Fabris; the drawings and illuminations being likewise copied from nature, under his own inspection.

In the method we have adopted of detailing Mr. Hamilton's labours according to the different branches of his pursuits, we are relieved from the necessity of following in a chronological series the whole of his exertions. We shall therefore here take a retrograde step to give an account of what he had done, in the same interval, towards the science of antiquities. So early, as 1765, he had promoted the publication of the magnificent and elegant work—*Antiquités Etrusques, Grecques et Romaines, tirées du Cabinet de Mr. Hamilton*; a fine collection of designs from Etruscan, Greek and Roman Vases, which was received with the greatest satisfaction by the lovers of antiquity and the arts.

The design of this work was professedly the advancement of the arts. It was intended to shew on what system the ancients gave their vases that elegance so generally acknowledged and admired, and how they were able to assign the exact measures of their proportion; and to establish certain principles for the artist who would perform something in the same line.—It was, in short, a most valuable present to the learned and to artists, and above all to manufacturers of earthen ware and china, and of vases in silver, glass, &c. who found here an infinite variety of beautiful models, most of which had been until then unknown; and indeed it may be observed, that since that period our articles of the above description are universally formed with more beauty, taste and elegance; qualities in which we as yet remain unequalled by any other country.

We are informed in the Abbé Winkelman's Letters, that the above mentioned work was intended to be comprised in four large folio volumes. Of these, the two former only appeared at the stated time, and are known we presume to many of our readers. The two latter volumes (as we are informed by a note in the last edition of the Letters of Winkelman) were published in Naples in 1775; but the writer of this article has never been able to procure a sight of them, or even to gain the least information on the subject. The two former volumes were reduced to a smaller size, and republished at Paris, by Mr. David, in 1787, in five 8vo. volumes.

The adventurer D'Hancarville, editor of the work, as we are told by Winkelman, expected, by that publication, to acquire a fortune of twenty thousand pounds. It is not probable that he ever realized this expectation, but we know from D'Hancarville himself, that Mr. Hamilton allowed him to reap the emolument which might arise from the work. Of the particulars of which, he himself says, that "long since Mr. Hamilton had taken pleasure in collecting those precious monuments, and had afterwards trusted them to him for publication, requiring only some elegance in the execution; and the condition, that the work should appear under the auspices of His Britannic Majesty,"—"It answers no purpose to have of the ancient vases that general and vague idea which is given of them by the books of Caylus, or Montfaucon.—There are few antiquaries and scholars who have not entertained a wish to see such a collection executed with care and precision.—They can now compare the present with that of Cardinal Gualtieri, reported by Montfaucon, and with all the others which have hitherto appeared.—Mr. Hamilton, justly apprehensive that the vases, already destined for England, might be damaged in their way, has resolved to have them engraved at Naples."

Part of the vases which gave rise to D'Hancarville's work, is that precious collection which is now seen in one of the rooms of the British Museum, and which formerly belonged to the senatorial house of Porcinari, in Naples. Mr. Hamilton purchased it from the proprietors in 1765, and it still is a matter of surprise with the greatest of our artists that it was ever suffered to go out of its native land. In Naples, however, it never occasioned any surprise; as it is there known, that full five years before the purchase, the same valuable property, through the means of the famous Theatin Father Paciaudi, had been offered to the Count of Caylus; and, in fact, the best informed Neapolitans were fully convinced that it was much better that such precious monuments should be in the power of some active nation, in which they might be put to the best use, than to remain in their own country, where they would have been useless to all eternity. About the same time (in 1767), the British Museum received from Mr. Hamilton two other valuable presents:—1st. A complete collection of every sort of matter produced by Mount Vesuvius, by which he thought it might be proved that "many variegated marbles and many precious stones are the

produce of volcanoes, and that there have been volcanoes in many parts of the world where at present there are no traces of them visible." 2d. Two very scarce and interesting books, respecting the formation of the celebrated new mountain* at Pozzuoli, published at Naples, a few months after the event, in 1538, the one written by Marc Anthony delli Falconi; and the other by Peter James di Toledo.

Among the several persons whom Mr. Hamilton honoured with his patronage in Naples, we shall only mention the celebrated engraver, Morghen; as it was owing to his encouragements that this eminent artist, in 1769, published that elegant collection of views at Pozzuoli and other spots in the neighbourhood of Naples. It is pleasing to say, that Mr. Morghen soon evinced his gratitude towards his patron, and the nation to which the latter belonged: the collection was dedicated to the Society of Arts in London; and the greatest part of the views were inscribed to some individuals of our nobility who then happened to be in Naples. As our limits will not allow us to enter upon many details, we shall only subjoin, that ever since the year 1770, Mr. Hamilton had established a regular correspondence with various intelligent persons in the several provinces of the kingdom, concerning such monuments of arts or antiquities as might happen to be found near their respective residences, and which might answer his further purposes. This correspondence was carried on with a peculiar activity in the province of Campania, that province being indeed the spot in which the greatest number of ancient vases has been found, and which for this reason is thought to have possessed the chief manufactures of that article.

Whilst at this period, Mr. Hamilton so successfully indulged in scientific and literary pursuits, he had no opportunity of exerting himself to any advantage in his public and diplomatic capacity. Besides the insignificance of the crown of the two Sicilies in the concerns of Europe, nothing of importance was then in agitation in the political world—it was the happy period which immediately preceded the American war; and with regard to private connections it is still in the remembrance of his old friends, that till he became acquainted with some congenial characters, he found himself in the midst of an immense metropolis, as insulated as if he had been in a village. The diplomatic body, formerly honoured by the illustrious Count of Firmian, was then destitute of respectable members; and the chief individuals of it, the Count of Stainville and the Count of Kaunitz, both proud of the protection of their respective fathers, first ministers in Paris and in Vienna, and both giddy and libertine young men, were rather dangerous associates for a man of sober character. His majesty, being in his minority, and not having as yet discovered that respect for learned men, which he has constantly displayed in his riper years, could not, by his example, influence the minds of the generality of persons in power. And the consequence of this was, that among a nobility generally uninformed and vicious, and among a magistracy and ministry who had no views beyond their respective professions and employments, the studious life, the philosophical excursions, and the reserved manners of Mr. Hamilton, were rather considered as peculiarities and eccentricities.

Of his domestic life, about this period, we fortunately have an account from the celebrated secretary of the French academy, Duclos* from which we shall here give an extract, the more properly, as with the alteration of time and place, it is his characteristic picture in every part of his life. "Mr. Hamilton," says he, "was in the habit of taking his dinner at home with a select number of friends, among whom I had the honour of being admitted. He had also a weekly party of the most distinguished persons of Naples. In these parties, a concert was sometimes given, in which Miss Hamilton played on the harpsichord so eminently that her talents were acknowledged in a town decidedly superior in musical science to the rest of Italy. Mr. and Mrs. Hamilton are the happiest couple I ever saw. Both still in the vigour of youth, with good hearts and cultivated minds, and tenderly attached to each other, they presented to me the image of a patriarchal life. The lady, mistress of a considerable fortune, enjoys the pleasure of making that of her husband, who had nothing of his own but an illustrious name. The gentleman duly sensible of what he owes to a beloved wife, is highly pleased to acknowledge it, and the sentiment of his gratitude increases the happiness of his situation."

The twelve years which elapsed from 1772 to 1784, formed a remarkable epoch in Mr. Hamilton's life, with respect to his advancement and his domestic affairs. On the 3d of Jan. 1772, he was created Knight of the Bath. About the year 1775, he lost his only daughter. In August 1782, he likewise lost his lady. And in the year 1784, after twenty years absence, he visited his native country; on which occurrence, we presume, he was made a Fellow of the Royal, and Antiquarian Societies.

This time, however, was equally well employed in the service of the Sciences; for in 1779 he repeated his visits to Mount Vesuvius and published the *Supplement* already mentioned; in February 1783, he undertook the journey to Calabria, to observe the phenomena produced by the dreadful earthquake which just before had desolated that beautiful province, and of which he subsequently gave an account, in a letter to Sir Joseph Banks, inserted in the Transactions of the Royal Society; and so early as 1777, he wrote an excellent memoir on the discoveries until then made at Pompeii, which memoir accompanied with 13 beautiful plates was inserted in the 4th volume of the *Archæologia*, and by which we were informed, "that the city was supposed to have been a mile in length, and about three miles and a half round; that only one hundred yards of a principal street, supposed to run through the whole city, had then been cleared; that the width of the horse way was said to be in general ten feet eight inches English, and the elevated

* In making for another object, some researches into the Neapolitan chronicles, the writer of this article has accidentally found in Richard of St. Germain the curious account of a contrary phenomenon, which took place in the year 1228. For, *mense Julii*, says the chronicle, *Mons Isclæ subversus est, et operuit in casalibus sub eo degentibus fere septingentos homines inter viros et mulieres*—a fact which he had never read before, and which is most probably not noticed in any history of the volcanoes of the two Sicilies.

* Voyage en Italie, page 112.

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foot way, on each side, about three feet wide; that the plan of most of the houses was a square court, with a fountain in the middle, and small rooms round, communicating with that court; and that fragments of large panes of glass were found there, shewing that the ancients of this period knew well the use of glass for windows."

His most truly meritorious labours, however, at the close of the above mentioned period, were those which had in view the unrivalled museum of Portici; —an object which, owing to the narrow-mindedness of the ministry, had not yet been accessible to his researches. The history of the discovery of Herculaneum, and of the Royal museum to which it gave rise is too well known to require any detailed notice in this place: It is equally alien to our purpose to relate the several tardy and unsuccessful measures which the government took to illustrate that unrivalled establishment; and we shall only notice the ancient manuscripts in the Museum, which are immediately connected with our subject. It is known that about eight hundred objects of this kind had been found in the several excavations of Herculaneum; and that on application being made to Mr. Assemanni of the Vatican, on the subject, this learned man had recommended an able, industrious, and indefatigable Piarist monk, named Father Anthony Piaggi, who possessed the art of completely unfolding the decayed manuscripts. Some successful trials were made: a work on the philosophy of Epicurus, another on morals, a third on rhetoric, and a fourth on music were brought to light—and of the last, the author of which was a Greek named Philodemus, thirty-eight full columns were happily copied. Father Anthony's services were still more beneficial; he instructed in his art a pupil named Merli, afterwards as able as himself. Neither of them, however, persevered in their tasks: they complained of the supineness of the ministry, and of their own scanty allowance.

Among the papers left by Sir William at his death, are found more than fifty memoirs directed by Father Anthony to the Marquis of Sambuca, soliciting his patronage for the great work of the manuscripts, to which solicitations that minister seemed to be deaf. Numberless other memoirs of the kind were also presented to several persons in the Royal service, and they met with no better success.—The consequence was, that Father Anthony at last committed a curious but most exceptionable *Pulcinellata:* he put himself under the protection of Sir William, and tendered his services for any information which the latter might wish, concerning the Museum. The propriety of accepting this offer may be questioned. It was considered, however, by one who was not particularly acquainted with the administration of the establishment, as too important not to meet with an immediate compliance: a treaty was concluded, that Sir William should grant to Father Anthony a pension of 600 ducats a year, (£100) and the latter should regularly send to him every week a sheet of original information; and in order to elude any ministerial inquisition, it was also agreed that the correspondence should be carried on in cyphers. This correspondence lasted till the death of Father Anthony in 1798; and, if we except as we have already remarked, a want of delicacy, and perhaps also a breach of trust in the monk, we may presume, that in the main object, it proved satisfactory to both parties: Sir William was indeed so satisfied, that, some years after the commencement of the treaty, he procured for Father Anthony an additional pension, of the same sum of 600 ducats a year, (£100) from his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales; and Father Anthony, on his side, seemed also so sensible of the favours he had received, that on his death, he bequeathed all his manuscripts and papers of every kind to his patron.

In the year 1791, Sir William was appointed a privy counsellor; and in the same year he married Miss Harte, the present Lady Hamilton. About the same time also, in order to give a further illustration to his favourite doctrine, respecting the constant state of eruption of Mount Vesuvius, he charged a Dominican friar (whose name the writer of this article does not recollect) at Resina, to compile for his use, a daily calendar of the several phenomena of that mountain; a compilation which, most probably, will also be found among his papers.

We do not think it necessary to give any detailed notice of the extreme period of Sir William's life; as that part is either connected with the general history of the times, or too well known to our readers to require a full narrative. It is in every one's recollection, that, in December 1798, when the French attacked the kingdom of Naples, he accompanied his Sicilian Majesty to Palermo, from whence, towards the close of 1800, he was recalled to England: and of his death, which took place on the 6th of April, 1803, the 72d year of his age, many circumstantial and interesting accounts were given in the periodical works of the day.

During the short interval between his arrival in England and his death, this respectable philosopher and naturalist was occupied in ordering and classifying his numerous manuscripts, which had been conveyed from Naples to Palermo, at the time of his removal; and from the latter place to London, on his return to England. These manuscripts consisted of eight large boxes; four of which contained his correspondence with Father Anthony, and the other four, the valuable papers which the latter had bequeathed to him. It was his intention, after a due arrangement, to favour the public with two works collected from their contents, one of which was to exhibit a series of original observations on the best monuments of art in the Museum of Portici; and the other, a series of historical anecdotes concerning its literary and economical administration, from its first establishment. We are happy to say, that in this expectation the learned public will be little or nothing disappointed by Sir William's death; as before that event, he had deposited all the papers in the hands of his learned and respectable friend Mr. Townley, of the Antiquarian Society, by whom, we understand they will be shortly published.

At the conclusion of this biographical sketch, some of our readers will perhaps inquire, why the memoir of a man who has devoted the greatest part of a long life to the service of his native country, in a public

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capacity, contains so many details of his literary and philosophical pursuits, and little or no account of his diplomatic exertions, which naturally constituted the immediate duties of his station? We might it is true, have stated—1st. The explanations which, in 1772, he had with the first minister, Marquis Tanucci, on account of the noted scribbler Michael Torcia, who, in his proverbially ridiculous performance, *The Political Sketch of Europe*, had used some improper expressions;—2d. The negociations which he successfully concluded for the neutrality of his Sicilian Majesty in the American war;—3d. His excellent conduct during the family misunderstanding between Spain and Naples, from 1783 to 1786;—4th. His equally proper behaviour towards an eccentric character among our nobility, who, during his residence in Naples, from 1784 to 88, was the constant visitor of the intriguing and scandalous society of the Austrian counsellor Calzabigi; and 5th. That by his powerful ascendancy over the Neapolitan ministry, and the excess of his generosity and good nature, he forced some persons of infamous character into the offices of state and the provincial magistracy. But we wished to avoid giving offence to others while paying a tribute to his memory, especially as we were aware that the fame of Sir William Hamilton will ultimately rest on his talents, learning, and patriotic spirit; for, although he may have possessed the highest activity and sagacity in his capacity of ambassador, as it is fair to believe from the happy management of those affairs which fell within the limits of his station, from his attention and obliging behaviour towards British travellers of every class, and from the highly honourable figure which he made among other ambassadors at the same court, it was utterly impossible for him to evince any great degree of discernment or penetration in court intrigues, or any skill and dexterity in negociations whilst he had to deal with a languid and inactive government, considered in a little better light than an immediate fief of Spain, and an intermediate fief of France. Those among our readers who may not have duly followed the course of French politics, during the two last reigns of that monarchy, and to whom these expressions may consequently appear harsh, are desired to look into three publications which have appeared within the last two years at Paris, The Travels in Italy, a posthumous work by the celebrated Desbrosses, the Travels in Spain, by the ambassador Bourgoing, and the Politics of Europe under Lewis XV. and XVI. by Segur the elder, and they will find in them a common expression of the arrogant cabinet of Versailles—*the two petty States which are possessed by the princes of our Royal Family in Italy!* It is unfortunately but too true that neither his present Sicilian majesty, nor his august father ever asserted the consideration to which they were naturally intitled in European affairs, and that they have been subjected to a mortifying disregard by the eternal insufficiency of their ministers. But it is, nevertheless, an insult to justice, to truth and common sense, to compare two rich and extensive kingdoms with that almost imperceptible spot the dukedom of Parma, and to bestow the name of *petty state* upon a powerful monarchy possessing nearly seven millions of inhabitants—that very monarchy by which the high spirited prince, Charles of Anjou, attempted nothing less than the conquest of the Eastern empire, and which that august sovereign of the house of Suabia, who was an honour to his age and to the Imperial diadem, emphatically called, *hereditatem nostram pretiosam!*

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° IV.

Millia quot magnis nunquam venere Mycenis. Virgil.
Our thousands swarm o'er all this happy land.

THE following letter, containing an account of a Baronet of my family, will probably recall to some of my readers, occurrences which they have frequently witnessed. Mr. *Oldstyle* does not indeed speak of my cousin, or of our family in general with much complacency, or even, to say the truth, much common civility; but instead of being angry with him on this occasion, I shall merely observe for his comfort, that our race is become so numerous of late, whether by importation from Bengal or elsewhere, as to render it impossible for him to thrust his nose into any corner of the kingdom, without encountering a *Nabob*.

To the Nabob.

SIR,

I have waited with some impatience for a developement of your character. I have been no small sufferer by Nabobs, and they are therefore a species of gentry I wish in future to avoid. But that you may not suppose I have taken up an unreasonable prejudice against them, I beg leave to inform you of a few circumstances respecting my case and that of my neighbours.

When, a few years ago, I was enabled by success in trade, to retire with my family, to a village many miles remote from London, I fondly hoped I should pass the remainder of my days in the peaceful cultivation of a few acres around my house, and in superintending the domestic concerns of my family, and the education of my children. I flattered myself that I should have occasion for little farther intercourse with the world, in its fashionable state, or with the bustle of business. My neighbours were in general pretty much about my own situation as to wealthy matters; none of us were too high or too low for one another, and our visits, which were moderately frequent, were paid and repaid without the fuss of preparation, or any of those ceremonies which impose constraint and make our parties of pleasure hours of fear and pain. The vicar, a very worthy ecclesiastic, visited us all in turn, and as often as he pleased; the schoolmaster, too, was a man we did not disdain to accommodate with a knife and fork at any of our tables; and at our club at the Red Lion, every Tuesday night, you might have beheld a system of social equality, worthy of the golden age, if ever there was such an age, and a well-tempered and mirthful conversation free from "hatred, malice, and uncharitableness." We were sometimes a little dull, indeed, especially if the newspapers did not come down regu-

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larly, but our dullness I hope was excusable, seeing it proceeded from our never speaking ill of one another. The parish, indeed, was one of the most free from town vices I ever knew. We had little ambition among us; our tables were covered with plenty, but we never desired to exhibit luxuries for the sake of appearing greater than our neighbours. If any one excelled by chance his friend, it was not from pride, but perhaps because he had a more notable wife, or a more productive garden, or some other rival cause for a nicer spread table.

Well, sir, this happy state of affairs continued for some years, when at length, undoubtedly for our sins, a NABOB was inflicted upon us, one SIR BENJAMIN BEGUM, who had in his youth been pressed for a sailor, (you may guess his rank from that circumstance) got to be purser's clerk, and then captain's clerk, and then nobody knows what, but sure enough he returned to his native land within twenty years from his hand-cuffing over against the Tower, and as ill-luck would have it, ours happened to be his native parish. On his arrival he made many fruitless inquiries after his relations, even the name was forgot, but with some difficulty a superannuated clerk of the parish recollected that his father and mother died in the workhouse. After bestowing a suitable portion of regret for these near relatives, he purchased a very considerable estate in the neighbourhood, on which was an elegant mansion, and as soon as a vast number of London carpenters, cabinet-makers, plasterers, painters, paper-hangers, &c. &c. had exercised their talents for about half a year to make it habitable, down came Sir Benjamin and his whole family, with such a number of servants, postillions, and out-riders, that the procession looked more like an invasion (from which Good Lord deliver us!) than entering on the peaceable possession of one's own house.

Against Sir Benjamin, I wish to make no complaints personally. He behaved with great propriety to us all: invited us by turns to his house, and seemed inclined to establish a good understanding with those whom he could not but consider in future as his neighbours, and many of them, though I say it, tolerably *warm men*. But I know not how it was—we were all seized with a kind of panic; at our club, we became somewhat more censorious than usual; even the good vicar muttered something about "evil communications," and for some Sundays preached more from Solomon's Proverbs than any other part of the Bible. However, it was not long before our fears were realized, and we found ourselves in the situation of the frogs who petitioned Jupiter for a king, although we had petitioned for no such thing, and would have been very glad if his Nabobship had been pleased to bless any other part of his Majesty's dominions with his presence.

From this time, Sir, and that not by very slow nor imperceptible degrees, a kind of luxury crept in among us which threatened the most important revolutions in our kitchens and cellars. We no longer preserved any of our usual *criteria* of expences. All custom, and, if you will allow such a word to be profaned by the pen of a rustic, all fashion and mode, long established among us disappeared. We had no longer any rule of action, speech or thought, but imitation. We no longer did any thing because it was proper or necessary, or because our neighbours did the same. All our patterns now came from Begum-Hall. What was done there was a sacred law, and our tables very soon gave evidence of it. Not many months after Sir Benjamin had feasted us round, and we had received him in our best manner, a number of substantial joints which every child could tell the name of, were removed to the side-board, and in their room came a parterre of dishes which we were afraid to offer, because we knew not what to call them, and afraid to eat because we did not knew what they might be made of. In such articles, however, there was now an ambition to excell, and some of the shrewdest of our wives, anxious that their husbands' dignity should not be eclipsed by the great stranger, made every pretence to send a cunning wench of a servant to Begum-Hall, that she might have an opportunity of getting acquainted with the cooks, and steal a few receipts. Nor was this all, old port fell into disgrace, and we began to talk of the flavour of our claret, and the sparkling of our champaigne, although it is a notorious fact, that for a twelvemonth we had nothing in return but a series of bowel-complaints, and an unusual consumption of magnesia.

From our diet, the revolutionary spirit, in an evil hour, hovered over our dress, and it was discovered by our wives and daughters, that they were not in possession of one article of dress fit to be worn. The Miss Begums had frequently at church dazzled and confounded the congregation with India silks, and gold and silver muslins, with pearls and diamonds, until an universal discontent took place; but this, bad as it was, could not go much farther. No; we might eat and drink like Sir Benjamin, but to dress like the Miss Begums was not to be atchieved by mere imitation, without such ways and means as could not be devised. Visits to London, indeed, were insisted upon, and we complied, but still the Miss Begums poured out their treasures in such abundance as to bid defiance to all rivalship.—The consequence of this is, that we spend our incomes much more lavishly, with not half the comfort we once enjoyed; we are striving who shall be greatest, when we are conscious that Sir Benjamin could, as the saying is, buy and sell us all. Our girls are setting their caps at Sir Benjamin's sons, although the youths seem to consider them in no very respectful light, and, between ourselves, Sir, I must inform you that these youths have added considerably to our population, and their bashfulness, I suppose, requiring concealment on their part, all this is done at the expence of our poor rates. You may readily imagine, too, that we are not a little in a bustle with the perpetual influx of London visitors to Begum-Hall, most of whom are likewise Nabobs, and who by their balls and fetes have totally overturned all the decent economy, and social comfort of this unhappy village.

If I had not, Sir, considered you only a Nabob by reputation, I should not have made so free with a class of men amongst which you are numbered, but you

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must allow that sufferers will complain, and that grievances may be too great for human patience.—But I have one thing more to add about our Sir Benjamin, and that is, the strange alteration that has taken place in our language. I do not mean only our having adopted the fashionable cant of London, for that, however unbecoming in us, may yet with some trouble, be rendered intelligible. But the Begum family have sown among us the seeds of a jargon, which, if it grow up, I shall defy any person to visit here without a Persian Dictionary under his arm. For example, when Sir Benjamin is speaking of his neighbouring landholders, greater or less, he calls them *Zemindars* and *Chowdrahs*. When he talks of employing his attorney, he says, "I shall send these deeds to my *Vakeel*," and it was but the other day Miss Coromandela Begum, who had been at a review of volunteers, told us that the *Sepoys* went through their manœuvres expertly, and that she was quite inspired by the sound of double *Tomtom*. On the return of the family from Lord ——'s house, they said the *Rajah* had a pretty estate, but he had no *Musnud* to receive visitors, and kept but an indifferent *Durbar*, and that upon the whole they preferred his neighbour *Khan*, who had lately put arms into the hands of five hundred of his *Coolies*, and receives his company in a military style. Their method likewise of counting money, is as different from ours as if they did not know the value of pounds, shillings, and pence. Nothing is to be heard of but *rupees*; when they want to be very grand they talk familiarly of *lacks*, and when it becomes necessary to confound us quite, they estimate the civil list at so many *crores*. Really, sir, one might as well talk of *livres* and *sous*. The daughters who give themselves the air of *Rennees*, begin to wish their papa would remove from our parish, which they call a paltry *Monza*, and ridicule our Saturday's market by the name of a wretched *Bazar*. They complain, too, of the impertinence of the country people in staring at, and following them, and declare they don't understand being thus surrounded with *Hircarras*.—A bit of a thicket behind my house, not so large as the inclosure in Grosvenor-square, has been dubbed a *jungle*; but what I consider as more disrespectful than all, was an expression of one of Sir Benjamin's brother Nabobs, at table the other day, about our good vicar—why, sir, he called that worthy man "a d—nd *old Bramin!*"

I shall only add, sir, that whatever may be the sins and iniquities of you, sir, or the proprietors of the LITERARY JOURNAL, or of its writers, or of the villages and pleasant spots of the island of Great Britain, I humbly pray that their crimes may never be such as to draw down a Nabob upon them.

I am, Sir,

Your most humble Servant,

Goose-Green, Berks, Feb. 20, 1804. OLIVER OLDSTYLE.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

On the Expulsion of the French from St. Domingo.

THE European colonies in the West Indies are possessions of a nature peculiar to themselves, and their situation differs in many important respects from that of any other country, of which we have any account. This renders all our reasonings and conclusions with regard to them, and the great events which happen in them, but little satisfactory and determinate. Our best speculations are rather probable conjectures, than conclusions on which any firm reliance can justly be placed. For having no parallel cases, by which to guide our judgements respecting the effects which may flow from those combinations of circumstances which we behold, we are left to our knowledge of human nature, and called upon to determine what direction it is likely to receive in this new, and untried situation. It is evident that our knowledge of human nature is too imperfect to afford any foundation for accurate conclusions in such a case. It is so imperfect that we can form but a very poor conception of what passes in the mind of a man, in a state of society so different from our own as that of a negro, and consequently of what determinations he may be led to form by the action of any given circumstances. In certain simple cases our knowledge may guide us to conclusions sufficiently certain. If you hurt a negro, you excite his resentment; and he will gratify it by hurting you in his turn, if fear of a new injury do not restrain him. This much we might safely affirm from what we know of the constitution of man, if we had not experience to determine it. But in cases ever so little complicated, we soon find ourselves puzzled, and at a stand. Instruct a savage in the contrivances of ease, and pleasure enjoyed in civilized life; you would never have judged before experience that he would fly from them all to his old grossness and hardships. In cases therefore so extremely complicated as that of all the circumstances, physical, moral, and political of the West Indies, how great must be our ignorance, and how uncertain all the conclusions which we may form! The circumstances themselves are so numerous that it is not possible for any man to have a full and complete idea of them. And if he had, no man has knowledge enough of human nature to say what effect this peculiar combination of innumerable circumstances may have upon the extraordinary population of the West India islands; to what train of actions, and what new aspect of affairs it may give birth.

The interests of this nation, however, are deeply involved in the circumstances of the West Indies; and it is far from useless to push our knowledge to its utmost extent, however confined that may be. The navigator, in an unknown sea, of which he has no chart, does not abandon the care of exploring where his vessel is going, but supports it more unremittingly, and intensely. Though he cannot see a great way before him, he does not count it for nothing to see a little way: and often escapes the dangers which surround him by this confined, and imperfect knowledge. We too ought, if we may borrow a navigator's phrase, to be sharply on the outlook in this new situation of

affairs; and though we may not be able to see far into futurity, we may, if we are attentive, prevent ourselves from being surprised by any sudden event, and be able to take measures to prevent, to a certain degree, its bad, or avail ourselves of its good, effects. That our knowledge is not more perfect ought to be the strongest motive with us to neglect no part of what can by any effort be arrived at.

To many the extension of the French power in the West Indies was an object of serious alarm. And indeed, if the creation of a French navy be an event formidable to Great Britain, there was reason for some solicitude. No contrivance, which it seems consistent with the present circumstances of France to adopt, is capable of raising a nautical force so rapidly as the possession of St. Domingo might have done. Could a great trade have been established between that valuable island and the mother country, carried by the ships and sailors of France, the favourite object was already accomplished; and the building of ships of war, in which France excells all nations, was the only thing wanting to enable that country to cope with Great Britain on the sea as well on the land. Difficulties to be sure lay in the way of raising suddenly a very flourishing trade in St. Domingo, but the natural advantages of the island are so great, that a large produce might have been obtained from it at no distant period. The rivalship thus raised with us in our trade is of no account; because we should quickly have found other means of employing our men and money, perhaps to greater advantage. But the number of sailors which would thus have been bred to France would have been a cause of deep apprehension. This ground of alarm is now completely removed by the expulsion of the French from St. Domingo. Thus far therefore we have occasion of joy from the late transactions in the West Indies. No one doubts that the establishment of prosperity in St. Domingo would have been extremely favourable to the creation of a maritime force in France; few doubt that the creation of a maritime power in France would be dangerous to us. These persons therefore cannot fail to regard the extinction of the French power in the West Indies, in this respect at least, as an agreeable event.

But there are other circumstances which give our thoughts a different direction. The extinction of the French power in St. Domingo is the erection of the empire of the Blacks. There are some politicians who regard this as by far the most deplorable event which at the present moment can befall the West Indies; and who thought the dangers to be apprehended from the augmentation of the French naval resources so little in comparison, that we ought not to have scrupled to give France, however certainly we might have counted on her enmity, our utmost assistance to re-establish her power in that island. The present ministers seemed to be nearly of the same opinion when they defended their conduct in permitting a formidable French squadron to sail to the West Indies. The persons who entertain these apprehensions are of opinion, that if the Blacks are permitted to maintain their independence in St. Domingo, they will quickly assert it in all the other islands; that a universal revolt of the slaves may be expected, who will massacre all the Whites, ravage and destroy all the property, and render those rich and flourishing regions a frightful scene of ruin and desolation. These speculators are impressed with an idea that the population of the West Indies is in a most unhappy and dangerous state. They conceive that the seeds of disorder and mischief lie thickly scattered; and want but little encouragement to make them grow. The white inhabitants are an insignificant number compared with the Blacks; that disproportion has been greatly augmented, particularly in the British islands, during the late years. Two races of people exist in the islands, the enemies of one another, of which the one bears no proportion to the other, and of which the weakest governs and oppresses the strongest. This state of society they consider, by its own nature, in the highest degree precarious, as likely to engender circumstances within itself, at no distant period, which will produce its dissolution. And the example of a successful resistance to the power of the Whites in any one of the islands is so great an addition to the other motives of the Blacks to revolt, that they think it must of necessity be followed.

With regard to the precarious state of things in the West Indies, arising from the nature of the population, there can, we think, be but one opinion, among all reflecting persons; and we will not doubt the conclusion, that this precariousness is somewhat increased by the independance of the Blacks in St. Domingo. But we do not think it is increased to the degree which is generally represented; and we see not any reason to dread the immediate appearance of those events which the state of the population threatens to produce at no very distant period.

The intercourse between the independent Blacks, and the slaves in the other islands can be very little. The intercourse between the different islands is all carried on by the White people. There is no doubt that very great pains will be used to prevent any communication between the inhabitants of the negro islands and the slaves in the other islands; and these cares may be rendered almost completely effectual. How infinitely greater are the means of intercourse between France and England, than between St. Domingo, and any other of the West India islands; and yet how completely is that intercourse cut off in a time of war? How much more unfit are the negroes for forming communications than the inhabitants of England and France. They can neither read nor write; they have but little curiosity: they are scarcely at all employed on ship board, and may be entirely laid aside; which by the way we would recommend as a very good regulation. We do not think it impossible to prevent almost completely any intercourse between the independant negroes and the slaves on the other islands. By far the greater part of the slaves are always employed a considerable way up in the country, upon the estates of their masters, and have no opportunity of conversing with any of the occasional visitors of the island. They are scattered too over the country, in small numbers on the different

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estates; they have no opportunity of combining together to form any thing like a general revolt; and the state of their mental endowments does not permit them either to understand the advantage of acting in concert, or to form plans for that purpose. Some general confused account of resistance made to the white men by their brethren in another settlement may reach the slaves in the British islands; and this may render them somewhat more restless, and impatient, under their present circumstances; but will not, we think, for some time at least, make any great alteration in the state of the West Indies.

We have the evidence of experience on our side. It is now several years since the Blacks on the French West India islands were emancipated. This first great change was the moment of the greatest danger; and accordingly the most violent fears were entertained. But we find, after a trial of a good many years, that this has had no remarkable effect upon the dispositions of the slaves in the other islands. If any additional tendency to insurrection has appeared among them, it has probably been more owing to the extraordinary increase of their numbers, during these years, than to any new ideas derived from the independence of their brethren in the French islands.

It is difficult to foretell what species of society and government will be formed among the Blacks of St. Domingo, if left to their own direction. It is the general apprehension that a state of anarchy and barbarity will be produced; that the rude inhabitants will first destroy all the property on the island, and then one another; till at last they will come to wander in the woods like solitary savages; every vestige of the fair works of civilization being effaced. If this is to be the unhappy termination of events in St. Domingo, the dangers arising from the state of slavery in the West Indies will not be greatly augmented by it; and precautions may be easily taken to guard the slaves from its bad effects.

That this will not be the final result of present circumstances, it is impossible to affirm. Because it is impossible to know to what degree the minds of the Blacks in St. Domingo have been depraved or improved by their preceding slavery. But it is to be remembered that the negroes, even in their own country, are not in the very lowest stage of civilization. They are not in savage, independent tribes, but formed into large nations, and subject to government. They have advanced not only beyond the state of hunters, but that of shepherds; and have arrived at that important stage in the progress of society when the land comes to be cultivated and appropriated. Nay more; they are not ignorant of manufactures, of a rather complicated kind; being covered with a cotton cloth of their own preparing. That persons of this description, should, unless in very unfavourable circumstances, fall into the lowest stage of barbarism is not very probable. It is rather to be supposed that they have improved their knowledge somewhat by observation of the arts of civilized life; and that the instruments both of agriculture, and of manufacture, which are already prepared for them, and of the manner of forming which they have acquired some knowledge will enable them to improve their condition; thus the negroes will exhibit a more cultivated state of society in the West Indies than in Africa. It is hardly indeed to be expected that they will form themselves at first into a single peaceable community under one government. They will most probably divide; and carry on very bitter hostilities; but not to mutual destruction. The interests of both parties, the very wants of their animal nature, set certain bounds to their animosities; and no nation can wage war against its enemy but in such a manner as is consistent with the care of the means of subsistence at home. Their interests at home will soon make even the negroes feel that a certain moderated resentment against their enemies is wisdom. And even, should they form themselves into separate, and hostile communities, they will in time become a sort of neighbours, not much worse perhaps than the civilized nations of Europe, very heartily wishing the mischief of one another, but not daring very openly to endeavour to bring it about.

In confirmation of this idea, what the Blacks in St. Domingo have already done ought not to be forgotten. It is not perhaps altogether so difficult to unite for hostile purposes against a common enemy, as to rear the fabric of a peaceful community. But it is at least next in difficulty. The first object the negroes have accomplished. They have carried on their hostilities with a steadiness and unanimity truly astonishing. They have submitted with ease and readiness to subordination. Their choice has fallen on leaders of singular accomplishments, and they seem to have strictly obeyed them. The mighty circumstance of forming an union is thus accomplished. And this appears to us to be the most arduous part of the business. The habits of subordination which have been acquired in war naturally continue. The reverence to the military leaders which have become habitual, remains with them in peace. Their services may soon again be wanted to ward off the attacks of an enemy. They must therefore be maintained in authority. Obedience must be yielded to them; and they are allowed to regulate the condition of their followers in peace, as they directed the events of a campaign. They become kings; and being once constituted, want not the means of preserving their authority. It is a matter of considerable consequence too, that the leaders of the Blacks are persons greatly advanced beyond the state of civilization of the negroes. They are either Europeans, or persons who have profited by an education among the Europeans, and possess nearly all the advantages of that high state of knowledge which Europeans have attained. They are therefore much more qualified to contrive means for maintaining the authority which they have acquired, and training their rude followers to some imperfect form of order, than chiefs of the same qualifications with themselves. Yet we know what order of things came to be established among the rude nations who over-ran the Roman empire; and how easily the chiefs, equally barbarous with the multitude, retained their authority after they established themselves in their new possessions. We think it extremely probable that in a way pretty similar, the leaders of the negroes in St. Domingo will be able to settle the island, when they possess it

without a rival. The negroes are in a state of society more improved than that of the Goths, when they formed their rude establishments in the different countries of Europe. Institutions exactly feudal will not probably be formed; because the circumstances of St. Domingo are different from the circumstances of Europe which more particularly suggested, and rendered necessary the feudal institutions.

If this order of things come to be established among the negroes, it is very little to be doubted, that in time similar events will be produced in all the other islands. But it is very evident that no immediate danger is to be expected in this case. It will require no little time for any intercourse to be established between this, and the other islands. All knowledge of what is transacted on it, may long be kept from the slaves. Though they were perfectly acquainted with it, they will not be soon prepared to break out into any revolt, which it will be difficult to quell. And business will proceed in the other islands for several years yet to come, as it has done for some years past. The difficulties, however, will every year become greater. The profits of cultivating these islands will every year become less and less. We have a striking proof of the degree to which these profits have lately been reduced, by the refusal of the Assembly of Jamaica to accede to the proposition of government for maintaining 3000 additional troops, on the reason that the profits of trade having so much diminished, they were unable to afford the expence. On this account European capital and property will be gradually withdrawn from these islands, to find out a more profitable employment. There will at last be little left upon them, and they will be abandoned to the negroes without a struggle. This we consider as the euthanasia of West Indian colonization.

Political History, Foreign and Domestic.

The French papers which have been lately received have been very barren of intelligence; and it does not appear that any thing much deserving of notice has happened in the republic since the publication of our last number. Reports of the advanced state of the enemy's preparations of invasion, and of his intention immediately to put his hostile designs in execution have been renewed. It is of importance that we should be on our guard against any desperate attempt which may be made. It is rumoured that the French fleet has got out of Toulon; and conjectures have been made that its destination may be to remove the blockade of Ferrol, to reinforce itself with the ships and forces there, and afterwards proceed to Ireland; while at the same time an expedition will be sent from Boulogne against England, and another against Scotland from Holland, to create the most powerful diversions; but that the great force will be directed against Ireland, which is the chief object of the First Consul's hope; whence he trusts to be able to annoy us in such a manner, as at last to reduce us to his own terms. In spite of the unfavourable weather which for some time has prevailed in Holland, it is said, that all the small vessels prepared in different places, have passed along the canals to the rendezvous at Flushing. About sixty vessels, from four hundred to six hundred tons burthen, remain at Amsterdam, intended for the troops at the Helder; at new Diep also there is a number of transports ready to receive troops. At Boulogne too, the accounts received last week stated that all the vessels necessary could not be assembled and ready before the end of March, but according to the last intelligence, every thing is prepared for immediate action; and that both here and at Flushing, nothing is waited for but orders to sail.

It appears to be a favourite object with the French government to persuade the people of the prosperity of the French finances, and the declining state of the British; and to effect this they employ strange misrepresentations. It is stated in a No. of the Moniteur lately received, that French stock has risen to 57, while British is sold at 55. It is further, they add, to be considered, that the dividends on French stock are paid in specie, while those on the English are paid in paper. This paper, they say, it is evident by the price at which dollars have been issued, is at 10 per cent discount; whence it follows, that English stock is in reality at 45. All this while the Moniteur takes no notice that it is only the English three per cents. which are at 55, while their five per cents. are at 87; and that though dollars are issued at a price above their value, the Bank takes them back at the same price.

An action, which has occasioned considerable alarm in Holland, has been performed by the French government. Severe edicts against the admission of goods of British manufacture or growth, had been enforced here, as well as in the other territories belonging, or subject to the republic; but not with very complete effect; and the strength of the demand for these goods had tempted the Dutch to contrive means of eluding the prohibition. Suddenly all the shops at Flushing, Middleburgh, and Veere, were beset by French custom-house officers and soldiers; and all the goods of English produce found in them were seized and confiscated. All this is said to have been done without the knowledge of the Batavian government. The most earnest supplications have been made to obtain a reversal of the order. Government dispatched a courier to Paris, as soon as the intelligence reached the Hague; and M. Semonville and Gen. Victor have been solicited to interfere, till the answer of the French government can be received.

Accounts have been received of an adjutant of general St. Cyr being employed in the Morea. The avowed object of his mission is to purchase horses, for the use of the French army on the opposite side the Adriatic. But he inspects every thing with the utmost attention; whence the Pasha of Janina has become suspicious of his intentions; and has dispatched intelligence of his presence and proceedings to Constantinople.

According to some late accounts from Ireland, the spirit of disaffection which exists in that country, has exhibited itself in some recent actions. Eleven persons have been arrested at Cork, accused of belonging to a treasonable committee; and fears have been entertained of a rising about to take place in the county of Antrim. The city of Dublin, on the night of the 14th inst. was thrown into a state of great alarm, and all the military were called out; the real cause of this

commotion is not yet fully known. The letters which have passed between Lord Redesdale and the Earl of Fingal, the letters of Dr. Coppinger, and the memorial of Mr. O'Neil, have considerably agitated the public mind. Things in that country are indeed in a most unhappy situation.

The melancholy event of a severe indisposition of the King, was announced to the public on the 14th. His physicians soon reported that they did not consider his life to be immediately threatened; and their future reports have in a great measure removed this fear. But they have at last expressly stated that a speedy recovery is not to be expected. Through the King's illness little business in parliament has been done. Lord Grenville's motion relative to the issues of bank paper has been put off. Mr. Yorke's Bill relative to the volunteers had also been postponed, but now goes on. The Irish Bank Restriction Bill, has also been passed by the house of commons.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Mr. Roscoe is gone to press with his Life of Leo the Tenth; it will occupy about four volumes in quarto.

An Answer to the Rev. Mr. Marsh's pamphlet, is in the press, by the author of the former reply.

An Enquiry into the Progress and Present Magnitude of the Population of Ireland, from the pen of Mr. Newenham, will appear shortly.

Mr. Southey is employed on a History of Portugal; we understand also that he has an epic poem in hand.

A practical manual of planting has been published at Paris with plates, by Etienne Calvel. The principles of planting are here displayed in the most clear and correct point of view. The nature of the soils, the choice of trees, the method of planting, transplanting, and rearing them, with observations and experiments, are given, so as to render this a most valuable book to the planter and the farmer.

Dr. *Guensel*, at Stockholm, Inspector of the cabinet of natural curiosities of the Swedish Academy of Sciences, who has spent several years in Lapland, is preparing for the press a descriptive account of the natural productions of that country. The work is to be published in numbers, containing coloured plates, with explanatory letter-press in the French language. In the botanical department, the doctor has the assistance of a literary friend lately returned from Lapland. In order not to swell this publication to too voluminous a work, the author intends to give minute descriptions of such species only, as are not yet sufficiently known, or have not been hitherto correctly designed. The first Number will be published in the course of next month.

Nouveau Dictionaire d'Histoire Naturelle, or, a New Dictionary of Natural History, applied to the arts, and principally to agriculture, and to rural and domestic economy, is publishing at Paris, by a Society of Naturalists, and Agriculturers, whose names are as follow:—Sonnini, Virey, Parmentier, Huzard, Bose, Chaptal, Olivier, Latreille, Cels, Thouin, Dutour and Patrin, almost all of them members of the National Institute. The work will form 24 large volumes, 8vo. It is adorned with copperplate figures taken from the three kingdoms of nature. A Paris, chez Deterville, rue du Battoir.

This grand undertaking is prosecuted with activity and now approaches to its termination. A more full account of the work will be given when the whole is completed, but it may be observed at present, from the specimens that have already appeared, that it contains many interesting and important facts, and will be an useful acquisition to the scientific world.

Voss, in Berlin, has lately published a very valuable and instructive work, under the title—"*Lectures on the master-works of Grecian poetry with peculiar reference to the poetical master-works of modern European Literature*, by *D. Jenisch*." 2 vols. 8vo. This classical production of a writer in whom profound erudition, and an intimate acquaintance with ancient and modern Literature are united with an uncommon acuteness of observation and correctness of taste, deserves in a particular degree the attention of all friends of poetry and polite literature.

Koenig at Paris has published, "*Histoire anatomique, physiologique et optique de l'œuil, &c. par le Professeur Lefebvre, Docteur en médecine et en chirurgie de Leipsick; Oculiste de Vienne en Austriche, de Dresde & de Munich.*" The anatomical description of the eye-ball and its constituent parts, given in this work, possesses the merit of exactness, though not of novelty. It is a valuable compilation of all that has been written by the best classical writers on the organ of sight, made by a man of vast erudition, who is completely master of the subject on which he treats. But whenever he wanders from that subject, he strays into digressions, of which our readers will be able to form some idea from the following specimens—"L' intellect est un *viscere* principalement *nerveux*, et la memoire un *viscere* principalement *musculeux*."—"La force vitale reside dans l'action du viscere de la circulation; elle principalement soumise aux nerfs appellés moteurs & *ceux-ci dependent de la mémoire*. Dans les rêves, *les filtres de la mémoire* étant inégalement ou confusément stimulés, produisent ces phantômes de rémemorations décourues, qui travaillent le corps douloureusement et spontanément."—"La tristesse est une passion qui affaisse le cerveau conduisant *l'air nerveux*, &c. &c."

M. *Zoega*, author of a valuable treatise on obelisks, has prepared for the press a descriptive catalogue of Coptic manuscripts found in the library of Cardinal *Borgia* in Rome; they are 330 in number.

Strauckmann, in Jena has published—"*Vindiciarum Coranicarum periculum; Scripsit I. C. Augusti, Doctor Philosophiæ et linguarum orientalium in academia Jenensi professor Publicus.*" The learned author of this interesting performance has very ingeniously, and in some measure successfully endeavoured to defend the historical truth, consistency, and moral tendency of the Koran, against the attacks of *Priestley*, *Berger* and other literati, who have laboured to prove, that it is an insipid farrago of absurdities, inconsistencies and notorious falsehoods.

Mr. *F. Schlichtegroll*, Inspector of the celebrated cabinet of natural and artificial curiosities of the Duke of Gotha, has edited the first volume of a periodical publication, which cannot but afford much gratification to the friends and connoisseurs of ancient and modern coins, under the title of "*General Numismatic Annals.*" It is divided into two sections, inscribed ancient and modern numismatic, the former of which contains; 1. A masterly view of the history of ancient numismatic, and its present state; 2. Numismatic maps, &c. &c. The latter comprizes, 1. A discourse of Mr. *Le Blond* on medals; 2. A descriptive catalogue of the medals coined within these last years, according to the geographical series of the states of Europe, &c. &c.

The following ordinance was issued at Vienna on the 30th of October last—"Whereas it has come to the knowledge of the public Boards of Censure, in the Imperial Royal dominions, that notwithstanding his Majesty's most gracious resolution of the 13th of October, 1798, not

only whole works are caused by Imperial royal subjects to be printed abroad, but also larger or smaller compositions and letters inserted in foreign literary gazettes and journals without the above works, compositions and letters being previously laid before the Boards of Censure in this country; therefore the above most gracious resolution is not only hereby removed, by His Majesty's command, *but also every one admonished not to cause any literary production whatever to be printed in foreign countries, without having previously obtained of the Board of Censure in the Imperial Royal dominions, the necessary* IMPRIMATUR."

By a late *arrêté* of the First Consul, Professors *Chaussier* and *Lafour*, have been appointed commissioners of the medical jury of the district of Paris, *Dumas*, *Vigareus* and *Berthe*, commissioners of the Jury of the district of *Montpellier*; and *Rochard* commissioner of the district of Strasburgh. The Paris jury consists of *Thouret*, *Leclerc* and *Salluthier*; that of Montpellier, of *Fouquet*, *Gouan*, *Rêné*; and that of Strasburgh, *of Coze*, *Gerbirn* and *Lauth*. Among the members of the juries are the following Literati, of some celebrity as writers—*Bonté*, correspondent of the National Institute at Constances, *Foderé* of Nice, *Morel* of Colmar, and *Wauters* of Ghent.

The National Institute of France has proposed the following prize-subjects for the year 13.—1st, The prize for poetry will be adjudged to the best copy of verses to be confined within a hundred, of which the kind and subject are left to the choice of the authors. 2d, The prize of elocution will be adjudged to the best eulogy on *Nicholas Boileau Despreaux*. This subject is put in competition for the third time. 3d, The prize of Grammar will be adjudged for the best eulogy on *Cæsar Chesneau-Dumarsais*. This subject is also put in competition for the third time. The prize for elocution and grammar is a golden medal of the value of 1700 *francs*; and that for poetry is 1500 *francs*. The works sent by the competitors must be in the possession of the Institute before the 15th Vendemaire.

Jansen in Paris, has published "*Description anatomique d'un Eléphant mâle, par Pierre Camper, avec vingt planches*," large folio. This highly valuable description of a male elephant, by one of the first physiologists and anatomists of our age, deserves peculiar notice. It was first announced in 1774, by a brief account, published by its celebrated author in the Dutch language, but has since received a degree of finish and perfection, which raises it to a distinguished place among the most masterly productions of modern times. The plates are designed and executed with the utmost neatness and correctness, and the description, replete with profound erudition, is the most interesting and most satisfactory account of the different species of elephants, hitherto discovered in Africa, Asia and America, which has fallen under our observations.

In the course of last September was published at Altona, a German translation of *Bonaparte's Will, deposited in the Senate before his departure for England*, which some time ago appeared in the *Courier de Londres*. This translation has not only been confiscated by order of the Danish government, but the Attorney-General has also been directed to commence a criminal prosecution against the following booksellers, *Brummer*, *Arntzen and Hartier*, *Schubothe* and *Proft*, for having sold and circulated copies of the above translation, the original of which is considered as a gross libel on his Consular Majesty.

Heitz, in Strasburgh, has lately published, "*Dissertation sur l'asphyxie, présentee et soutenue à l'ecole spéciale de médecine de Strasburgh le 9 Floreal an XI.*" On the back of the title-page of this instructive composition we find the following strange note." "*L'Ecole a arrêté, que les opinions émises dans les dissertations qui lui sont presentées, doivent être considérees comme propres à leurs auteurs et qu'elle n'entend leur donner aucune approbation ni improbation*," and a list of the professors, from which it appears that Citizens *Lauth* and *Berot* deliver lectures on anatomy and physiology, *Maunoir* and *Gerbain* on medical chemistry and Pharmacy, *Tourdes* and *Meunier* on medical physics and internal pathology, *Flamant* and *Caillot* on external pathology and midwifery; *Coze* and *Rochard*, on therapeutic and epidemical diseases; *Thiebaut* on botany and the materia medica; *Noel* on the history of scarce cases, and *Tinçhant* on the usual medicinal drugs and surgical instruments.

SCIENTIFIC.

Professor Klaproth of Berlin, well known in the scientific world for the accuracy of his chemical analyses, lately found an ancient *Speculum* which had been dug up from a grave, and analysed it. The product was two parts of copper and one of tin, which shews that the ancient mirrors were much of the same nature as the Specula of our telescopes. Metallic mirrors were very early invented, as they are mentioned by Moses, and in the Book of Job. In the time of Pompey the Great, an artist of the name of Prasiteles, formed mirrors of beaten plates of pure silver which were in much greater request than those of metal. The Roman Moralists mention these mirrors as a great article of luxury among the Roman ladies, especially Seneca, who says, that a Roman lady expended more money than would have been a large dowry for the daughter of a General, in the early ages of Rome, in the purchase of one mirror.

Citizen Wathier has invented a machine for working every species of cloth, of the utility of which the French speak with great exultation, as both in point of simplicity, and the economy that results from the employment of it, it is said to possess a manifest superiority over any thing of the kind used in England.

The seeds of grapes which have been generally thrown away as of little or no use, have lately been discovered to be an excellent substitute for coffee. When pressed, they first produce a quantity of oil, and afterwards when boiled furnish a liquid much resembling that produced from coffee. On account of this latter quality, and of the oil which they yield, these seeds have suddenly become valuable, and the practice of turning the seeds of grapes to the above uses is now rapidly becoming general in Germany. We have not as yet been able to learn the name of the person who made this useful discovery.

Mr. *Ermark*, assessor of the Board of Mines at Konigsberg, has made on his late travels in Norway, some very interesting observations, in order to determine the line of vegetation and snow in the mountains of that country. The *Schreehutten* is the highest mountain which he has ascended, the height of which he calculates at 8000 feet above the level of the sea. It is covered with eternal snow, and on a spot, where the snow had tumbled down, twenty-five different layers of it were observable, each with a crust of ice. The uppermost layer was of an undulating form, and in the incissures of the undulation, soft and of the colour of amethysts, which has likewise been observed on the Alps. On places, where the beams of the sun fall in an oblique direction, the snow-line descends as low as 3000 feet above the level of the sea, but towards the south and west, where the sun is more powerful, the snow thaws at a height of 7000 feet above the sea. The height of the line of vegetation varies in Norway, in proportion to the capability of the different species of trees and plants to endure more or less cold. Very fine fruit-trees grow at a height of 1000 feet and bear plenty of good fruit. Pines endure in Norway a higher degree of cold than firs. The latter grow only at the height of 2000 feet, while the former are found in full growth on heights elevated 3000 feet above the level of the sea. Oats and barley grow at a height of 1500 to

1800 feet, but only in dales. At the height of 1200 to 1300 feet night-frosts prove frequently detrimental to the crops.

VALUABLE INVENTION. *Helsingoer.**—A most remarkable experiment was lately tried at this place, which is expected to be of the utmost consequence to society. Professor Pelt, had in October, 1802, notwithstanding the severity of the season, produced, in presence of some well known mechanics, many experiments; among which was a newly invented Nautical Machine founded upon the hydrostatic principle, for saving persons from drowning. During his late residence here, he repeated the experiment of his new machine in the Sound, in order to try its effects against the united currents of the North Sea and the Baltic. After a sea-wanderer, (a young waggoner, name Isaac Peterson), had equipped himself in this machine, he sprang into the sea, in presence of numerous spectators, many of whom accompanied him in sailing-boats. At his departure, he fired a pistol twice; and on his passage, he eat, drank, and smoaked a pipe, to shew he had the entire use of his arms. Being benumbed with cold, he got into a boat to warm himself by rowing; but soon sprang into the water again, and happily reached the Swedish coast, after a passage of one hour and three quarters. On his arrival, he saluted the spectators with a pistol shot, and waved a flag which he drew from the sea. Having remained a short time at Helsinburg, he returned to the Danish coast, where he arrived amidst the shouts of the curious, who lined the shore.

According to the opinion of experienced seamen, this machine far surpasses any former invention of the kind, both in regard to its solidity and lightness, (weighing but 7lbs. English), and on account of the simplicity of its structure. It is fastened round the waist, and the person wearing it, enters the water up to the middle of his body.

C. N. A. Haldat, professor of Chemistry and medicine in the central college of *Meurthe*, and Secretary of the Society of Sciences, Literature and Arts at Nancy, &c. &c. has published "Chemical Researches upon Ink, its alterability, the causes of that alterability, and the means of applying a remedy." The object is to protect society against the arts of forgers, and to render vain the chemical means which they employ against manuscripts. It points out the signs that lead to the detection of alterations in writings, the means of restoring them, especially when defaced by oxigenated muriatic acid; and lastly, the method of preserving them from alteration by the use of a more subtle ink. It has obtained the approbation of many learned men.

A superb and magnificent cabinet of Natural History is to be sold at Leyden, during the ensuing spring; the day of sale and conditions to be previously specified. It is said to contain specimens of whatever is precious and rare in the mineral and fossil kingdoms, such as ores of gold and silver, metals and precious stones, among which are several diamonds, sapphires, &c. &c. a unique jasper, all sorts of marble with a great many other curiosities, whose value and rarity serve to render this collection of the first importance. There is besides a collection of shells, among which are the most admired species; the whole collected during a space of forty years, without pains or expence being spared, and arranged in order according to the systems of the most celebrated natural historians, *Linnæus*, Waller, &c. &c. Letters from probable purchasers may be addressed, *Mrs. P. Den, Hengst et fils Libraires dans le Kalverstraat a Amsterdam.*

Citizen *Conté* has communicated to the Society for the encouragement of National Industry, the following new process to prevent the effects of rust and the oxidation of metals which he considers as far more practicable and simple than any other method as yet discovered. "Take some of that varnish which the French call *vernis gras a l'huile*, of which the basis is gum copal; the whitest that can be found is the most proper. Let the essence of turpentine well rectified be mixed with this in the proportions of, from ½ to ¾, according to the degree in which it is intended that the pieces to be preserved should retain their metallic brilliancy. The metal is in the first place to be wiped with a piece of cloth or leather, strongly impregnated with *alkali*, then washed in pure water and afterwards rubbed dry with a linen cloth. Take a bit of fine sponge, let it be first washed in water and afterwards in essence of turpentine to extract the water. Put a little of the above varnish in a vessel, and then place the sponge in the midst of it, till the whole is imbibed. Let the spunge be squeezed between the fingers till it has discharged very nearly all the varnish contained in it. Let it then be passed lightly over the barrel of a gun or any other piece of metal, taking care not to repeat this when the essence has evaporated, which would render the varnish rough, and of an unequal tint. Let the metal then be dryed in a place secure from dust." Citizen Conté observes, that he has employed this process with success, and that experience has proved that pieces thus varnished, under every circumstance, preserve their metallic brilliancy without the slightest touch of rust.

The class of the Sciences of the National Institute being desirous to know the variations, which the magnetic needle experiences in the atmosphere, *Bertholet* and *Biot* have resolved to undertake several aërostatic ascensions, in order to ascertain these variations.

Mr. *Schultz*, a celebrated landscape painter in Francfort upon Main, has lately finished some masterly paintings representing the most romantic and picturesque views of the banks of the Rhine, from Manheim to Bonn, of the ruins of Rheinfels, Ehrenbreitstein, Welmich and Bornhoffen, &c. In the ruins of the castle of Welmick, Mr. Schultz discovered an ancient picture, in a high state of preservation, representing a Madonna in an asylum. The extreme simplicity of the style of this painting, is said to deserve the peculiar notice of connoisseurs.

POLITICAL.

A letter from Astrachan of the 1st of November last, contains the following information on the present flourishing condition of that city—"From the following authentic particulars you will be able to form some idea of the degree of prosperity, which Astrachan, the central point of the Russian-Asiatic trade, has attained under the present auspicious reign. This city contains at present a plantation of silk-worms, 24 silk manufactories, 81 cotton manufactories, 5 manufactories of morocco leather, 74 dyeing-houses, 24 brick-kilns, 92 vineyards, 212 mills, &c. The guild of merchants consists of 1189 Russians, 3 foreigners, 18 Tartars and 4 Hindoos. Among the inhabitants are 2188 Persians, Bucharese and Hindoos. The city contains 2000 shops, 6 convents, 57 churches, among which are 4 Armenian, 2 Roman catholic and 1 Lutheran, 27 Tartarian mosques, and 1 temple for Hindoos."

ERRATUM *in our last.*

Page 184, *for* the sentence as it now stands, beginning with line 42, *read*, He says the number of tax-gatherers was more than tripled. It was very little increased.—

Page 188, line 44, *for* Professor Robertson *read* Robison.

* Helsingoer is about eight miles (English) from Helsinburg, Sweden. It is well known that the current is very strong between these two places.

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THE LITERARY JOURNAL.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

The Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London. Abridged by Charles Hutton, *L.L.D. F.R.S.* George Shaw, *M.D. F.R.S. F.L.S.* Richard Pearson, *M.D. F.A.S. London. vol.* 1. *4to. pp.* 760, *&* 16 *Plates. C. & R. Baldwin.*

IN the fashionable dispute about the relative merit of the ancients and moderns which occupied the attention of literary men towards the end of the seventeenth century, the Sciences were in a great measure overlooked by both parties. No person, surely, how partial soever to the genius and attainments of the Greeks and Romans can hesitate to admit their inferiority to the moderns in every thing connected with natural philosophy. For the important sciences comprehended under that name have indisputably made greater progress during the last two hundred years than during twenty centuries which preceded them. This rapid advancement has been owing chiefly to four causes.—1. The attention paid by the moderns to arts and manufactures, which by the ancient philosophers were viewed with contempt or neglect. 2. The introduction of the experimental mode of investigating nature first reduced into a system by Bacon, and happily illustrated by the immortal labours of Newton and his contemporaries. 3. The institution of philosophical societies. 4. The custom of publishing without delay all discoveries and observations of importance in periodical journals and transactions.

By the operation of the first of these causes the moderns were furnished with materials for laying the foundation of a system of natural philosophy; by the second they were instructed in the method of raising the superstructure; while the institution of philosophical societies, by dividing the labour, enabled the workmen to advance in their tasks with rapidity and alacrity. The quick and regular publication of discoveries and observations is attended with many advantages. It prevents falsehood by insuring speedy detection, and facilitates information by collecting into one register the accumulated experience of many individuals. It connects philosophy with the arts and manufactures; equalizes knowledge, and thus puts all the members of the republic of science, as nearly as can be upon a level which must produce the greatest possible quantity of emulation and exertion.

Of all the philosophical associations of modern Europe, none has greater claims upon the gratitude of mankind than the Royal Society of London. It was the first association of the kind, and consisted originally of the most eminent men in England, at that time the centre of mathematical and mechanical philosophy. After a century and a half it subsists with undiminished reputation, and can still reckon among its members almost all the eminent men in Europe. Its transactions contain the most valuable body of philosophical information at present in existence. No other work of the kind can be said to equal them. Even the Memoirs of the French Academy, though abundantly excellent, are inferior in several essential particulars.

The Philosophical Transactions were published at first by the under secretary of the society without any formality or restraint; and bore an exact resemblance to the philosophical journals of the present day. But in the year 1740 this mode was altered and a committee appointed to select such papers as deserved to be committed to the press. The dissertations contained in them are of the most miscellaneous kind, affording information on every subject connected with natural science, natural history or domestic economy. They contain the accumulated scientific riches of Britain for a century and a half; the fruit of the exertions of the most eminent men in the country, and afford the best evidence of the progress which has been made in a period of unrivalled activity and exertion. Even as a curiosity then they deserve the attention of all liberal-minded men. They are a trophy raised to the science of the empire, and a monument of the superiority of the country, neither to be shaken by the petulance nor by the injustice of others.

But the utility of the Transactions is obviously proportional to their importance: they are indispensable to every person who aims at general knowledge: a library would be very defective without them; a book of science would be imperfect unless the author had consulted them. Unfortunately, as they now amount to about 100 quarto volumes, they are too expensive to be generally purchased, especially by those who would be most benefited by them. Besides many of the early volumes, which contain much important information, and are indispensable to those who wish to trace the progress of knowledge, are now so scarce as hardly to be procured for money. It must be confessed too that many of the dissertations are much more diffuse than is absolutely necessary, and might be compressed into a smaller compass with much advantage. And some of them perhaps are rendered nugatory by subsequent improvement. If to this we add that the volumes must of necessity be miscellaneous, and the dissertations placed indiscriminately, it will be obvious that the work would be rendered much more valuable by diminishing its size, and giving a catalogue of its dissertations arranged in a scientific order.

Hence the obvious advantages of an abridgement, which if properly executed would in fact be preferable to the original work itself. This was seen many years ago and occasioned no less than two such abridgements; but the execution of neither was entitled to much praise. Many papers were omitted altogether,

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others were reprinted at length, and the list of dissertations was so contrived as to puzzle rather than assist the reader. Yet even these imperfect abridgements proved highly useful. But unfortunately they stopped at an early part of the transactions; and the task was so expensive and so arduous that no person for many years ventured to resume it. At last the present abridgement was announced, and now two volumes of it are completed. The importance of the work has induced us to turn our attention to it at this early period, and to examine it with peculiar care. As the merit of the original is fully established, and is above all praise, we shall confine ourselves at present to the merits of the abridgement.

The abridgement has been undertaken by Dr. Hutton of Woolwich, Dr. Shaw, and Dr. Richard Pearson, who have parcelled out the papers into three sets. Those relating to mathematics and mechanical philosophy are abridged by Dr. Hutton; those relating to natural history, by Dr. Shaw; and those relating to medicine, physiology, chemistry, &c. by Dr. Pearson. This partition was certainly judicious. As the abridgers were to exercise a kind of judicial power over the dissertations, it was necessary that they should understand them thoroughly. But such extensive information was not to be expected to be possessed by one individual.

The papers in the abridgement are inserted in the same order as in the original work. A clear outline is given of each; but the length of the detail is in some measure proportioned to the importance of the paper. The Latin Papers have been translated, except in some few instances where the nature of the subject rendered it improper. When the dissertations in the earlier volumes are defective, or the assertions in them erroneous, we are referred to those parts of the subsequent volumes where more complete and precise information is to be obtained; or the mistake is corrected in a short foot note. This mode of proceeding is highly judicious and adds considerably to the value of the earlier volumes. We have carefully compared the first volume of the abridgement with the original, and have the satisfaction to say, that we have found it remarkably accurate. The perspicuous and unaffected style of the abridgers is peculiarly adapted to a work of science.

One slight defect only has occurred to us, and it may be easily corrected in the subsequent volumes. As this is a national work of great importance to the progress of knowledge, and which will doubtless be encouraged by a liberal and enlightened public, we wish to see it in every respect as perfect as possible. The defect we mean is the omission of some papers altogether, which the abridgers tell us the modern improvements in science have rendered totally useless and unworthy of being re-printed. The omitted articles are chiefly chemical, because that science has made the boldest progress since the commencement of the transactions. Now, though we allow the absurdity of the papers in question, we consider the omission of them as improper. A short summary of their contents ought always to be inserted, together with the conclusions and the premises on which they are founded. This is usually done, but it is omitted in three or four instances, when the want might have been supplied in a very few lines. It may be asked, why we insist upon a summary of an absurd paper? We answer, because such a summary is often of considerable use. It gives us a view of the chemical opinions, theories, and modes of reasoning of the times; of the substances which had been examined; and of the progress which Analysis had made. And when we attempt to ascertain the history of the science, such knowledge is of the utmost importance. It was from these errors that the greatest truths originated. By thus tracing the progress of discovery, we are enabled to give merit to whom merit is due; we see the gradual evolution of the most precious parts of our knowledge; we follow the footsteps of the original discoverers, witness the difficulties which they surmounted, and may ourselves, if we possess any sparks of their genius, imitate their illustrious example. It would be uncandid not to say, that the omissions in the first volume are of little moment; but it is against the principle that we enter our protest; because it cannot but lead to dangerous consequences.

A table in which all the papers are scientifically arranged, accompanies the first volume. Such a table to all the volumes, if properly executed, would form one of the most valuable parts of the abridgement. But here again we must find fault; and we hope sincerely that the tables in the subsequent volumes will be drawn up with more care. The reader will perhaps smile at a formidable criticism on a *table of contents*. But the table in question is not strictly speaking intitled to that name; it is in fact a *catalogue raisonnée*, or a table of the papers contained in the volumes scientifically arranged under their respective heads. The utility of such a table is sufficiently obvious. At the same time we acknowledge, that to draw it up properly is by no means an easy task. It certainly has not been executed by the abridgers; perhaps it has not been attempted by them. But we earnestly recommend it to their attention as one of the most valuable presents they could offer to the scientific world, and therefore take the liberty to offer the following hints which they are well qualified to improve.

1. They have arranged the table under six heads without any subdivisions, comprehending each a variety of sciences often heterogeneous enough. This only increases the trouble of the reader. The same mode was indeed adopted by the original abridgers; but their faults ought not to be repeated in a superior work.

2. The mark, *&c.* which appears at the end of the list of sciences in some of the sub-divisions renders the arrangement totally useless. The reader must often be at a loss to know what sciences are comprehended under every head, and must therefore run over the whole before he can be satisfied that the information he wants is not to be found. Unless every science be separated and expressly named, the very purpose of the arrangement is defeated.

3. When it is doubtful to which of two sciences a paper properly belongs, it ought to be placed under both.

4. The table ought to be preceded by a luminous and complete plan of all the sciences into which na-

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tural philosophy, and the other subjects treated of in the transactions, are divisible, and precisely the same arrangement should be followed in that plan and in the table.

Were this method followed and completed, we should be enabled to ascertain at a glance, the particular sciences treated of in every volume. We should possess likewise a chronological table of the progress of natural philosophy, from which much curious and instructive information might be collected. We shall find, for instance, that particular departments of science have been the fashionable objects of study at particular times. Some portions were cultivated with eagerness, but with little advantage. They then sunk into neglect; till after a number of years they were again resumed and suddenly advanced to a great degree of perfection. The chronological table would serve to explain this seemingly odd fact. It was the ignorance of some necessary principle that rendered the first efforts ineffectual. This principle had been discovered in the interval by the prosecution of some of the other sciences; and by its assistance, philosophers, when the subject was again resumed, were enabled to outstrip their predecessors.

That the meaning of the preceding remarks may not be misunderstood, we shall venture to subjoin a sketch of an arrangement which comprehends under it all the topics discussed in the first volume. Under each of the heads ought to be placed the dissertations in the first volume belonging to it and the page where such dissertations are to be found, but this we omit to save room. For an explanation of the principles upon which our arrangement is founded, we beg leave to refer to the first two or three numbers of the Literary Journal.

Class I. MATHEMATICS.

Under this class ought to be placed only the papers which treat of pure mathematics. They ought to be subdivided into the well known subordinate heads.

Class II. NATURAL HISTORY.
1. Zoology,
2. Botany,
3. Mineralogy,
4. Geography and Topography,
5. Hydrology.

Class III. MECHANICAL PHILOSOPHY.
1. Dynamics,
2. Statics,
3. Astronomy—Navigation,
4. Projectiles,
5. Mechanics,
6. Hydrostatics,
7. Hydraulics,
8. Pneumatics,
9. Acoustics,
10. Optics,
11. Electricity,
12. Magnetism.

Class IV.
1. Chemistry,
2. Meteorology,
3. Geology.

Class V. PHYSIOLOGY.
1. Anatomy,
2. Physiology of Animals,
3. Physiology of Plants,
4. Medicine,
5. Surgery,
6. Agriculture.

Class VI. ARTS.
1. Mechanical; *as for Example*, Weaving,
2. Chemical; *Examples*, Stone-ware, Glass,
3. Fine; *Examples*, Painting, Sculpture.

Class VII. EDUCATION.

All the topics discussed in the Philosophical Transactions are by no means comprehended in the above list; but every paper in the first volume may be placed under one or other of the preceding heads, and we did not think it necessary to go farther at present.

Such is our opinion of the merits of the present work, which, with a few improvements, would form we think, one of the completest books of the kind in existence, and one of the most valuable presents ever made to society. But besides the merit of the abridgement, the work possesses another advantage of considerable importance. Biographical sketches are given of the eminent men who contributed to the original transactions. Nothing affords more real pleasure than such biographical information, and no place can be more proper for it than the Work which contains the labours and discoveries of those illustrious characters who are the subjects of it. T. H.

The Guide to Immortality; or, Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Christ, by the Four Evangelists; digested into one continued Narrative, according to the order of Time and Place, laid down by Archbishop Newcome; in the words of the Established Version, with Improvements; and Illustrated by Notes, Moral, Theological, and Explanatory; tending to delineate the true character of Christianity. 3 *vols.* 8vo. *White.*

The reputation which Mr. *Fellowes* has deservedly obtained by his *Picture of Christian Philosophy*, and by various other religious publications, will render the public anxious to peruse these volumes; in which they will meet with the same learning, and liberality of spirit, with a language equally simple, impressive, and classically correct.

Yet at the same time that we acknowledge the abilities and the candour of this writer, he must allow us to express our opinion of these Memoirs with the same impartiality. Against the execution of this work, as the production of a learned, and of a pious man, there cannot possibly be any thing alleged; but respecting its import and tendency, we must enter our protest. Our religious principles are decidedly at variance with those of Mr. Fellowes; and, though the limits of our work will not allow us to canvas all his opinions, we shall express our opinion candidly respecting a few of the most important.

The Preface is admirably written: and we derive from it the following information: "I had no sooner perused the elegant *Diatessaron* of the truly ingenious and learned Dr. White, than I determined, as soon as

I could spare time from other occupations, to publish in English a work on a similar plan, though somewhat differing in a part of the arrangement.—In the account of the Resurrection I have more closely adhered to the harmony of *Newcome*, than has been done by Dr. White, who has followed the order of narration suggested by Dr. *Townson*; but which appears to me, on mature consideration, more perplexing and less satifactory than that of *Benson*, and *Newcome*."—Mr. Fellowes then proceeds to mention his obligations to Wakefield, Newcome, and Dr. Symonds the venerable Professor of Modern History at Cambridge, and we perused with pleasure the tribute that is paid to our learned friend; "it is to the persuasive suggestions of this accomplished Scholar, operating on the pious mind of Archbishop Newcome, to which we are indebted for that prelate's improved version of the christian Scriptures: and in which he made a liberal use of Mr. Symonds' observations."

Thus far all was well;—when, on advancing, we encountered a stumbling block even in the portal—"In the following work, it *will perhaps* be objected that I have introduced no Mysteries; *but whatever is mysterious, is unnecessary*." It was some time before we could believe, that any writer, not within the influence of the French school, could in a preface to an evangelical history of Christ incarnate, deliver such an opinion. Surely Mr. F. cannot have maturely weighed the purport of this opinion; since, if we believe the Scriptures, we must affirm with the Apostle, that GREAT *is the mystery of Godliness!*—With much propriety Mr. F. begins his work with the prefaces, or proemiums of St. *Luke* and St. *John*; but in the first note, the same aversion which he has already shewn from *mystery*, is here visible against *inspiration*; "the work which he (St. *Luke*) had addressed to *Theophilus, was not the product of miraculous inspiration*, but of industrious *research*."—We then proceeded to the history of the Temptation, anxious to know what Mr. F. would say, after the elucidation given by the Bishop of London in his lectures: when lo! the following passage completed our astonishment—"I think therefore, that with the *judicious* Rosenmüller, we may fairly infer, that he, who is said to have tempted our Lord in the passage which we are considering, and to whom the name of the devil is given, *was some crafty and wicked miscreant, some designing and factious man, who wished to seduce Jesus from the path of duty; and probably to render Him subservient to his own ambitious projects and interested views*."—Surely, Mr. Fellowes, if we believe, that the seed of the woman was to bruise the serpents head; if we possess a due and aweful sense of the Messiah, we cannot suppose that this glorious, this sublime character, could for a moment cope with a designing and factious mortal; or that such a contest would be dignified by the Evangelist, with the word Temptation.—Had this merely consisted in Jesus being tampered with by the artifice of an ambitious man, would not Christ have answered him, as he afterwards did such intruders—Why tempt you me, you hypocrite?—or would the celestial host of angels have descended after such a trial, in order to comfort, and to support him?

We cannot advance further towards the height of this great argument; nor do we presume to set up our judgment against that of Mr. Fellowes. There are other parts of his work, in which our opinion is equally hostile to his; but there are many which every one must approve.

In the note on the *Blood* and *Water*, which issued from the pierced side of the crucified Jesus, we discern the pen of an able writer; and were glad to see our author treat this curious subject, notwithstanding his aversion from Mystery, in a manner similar to that which Bishop *Horseley* did, in a sermon preached before the King; which that prelate has never published. "This fact, observes Mr. Fellowes, which is mentioned by John, is one of great importance; as it proves, beyond every possible uncertainty, that JESUS was *actually dead*;—and even, if any spark of life had remained, it must have been instantly extinguished; for the spear penetrated to the Heart. The water issued from the *pericardium* or membranous bag, which contains the heart; and it is said, that a great quantity of *serum* is always found in the thorax of persons who die of torture." (See Priestley's Harmony, 250.—John says, in his first Epistle, (V. 8.) "there are three which bear witness on the earth, the *breath*, the *water*, and the *blood*; and these three agree in one; meaning, that the ceasing of our Lord's respiration, with the effusion of blood and water from the wound made by the spear, unite in bearing one solid, consistent, and indubitable testimony to this important fact, that JESUS was *actually dead*, before he was *taken from the cross*; and, consequently, that his resurrection was not a recovery of suspended animation, but a miraculous restoration of the parted spirit to its insensate carcase."

Mr. Fellowes has either not seen, or which is most probable, has forgot a note in Bowyer's valuable conjectures on the New Testament, which tends to assign the connection of ερχομενον with φως, in the first chapter of St. John, to one of Mr. Bowyer's learned friends, who noticed it long before Wakefield. Respecting the alterations, which Mr. F. has made in our received translation of the Gospels, he has shewn considerable learning, though we sometimes have had reason to blame his judgment. We are sensible of the difficulties of the task, that even *Lowth* himself often failed, when he altered the received translation of *Isaiah*.—In narrating the Temptation, instead of reading with St. Matthew, or with St. Luke—*all the kingdoms of the world*, Mr. F. prefers all the provinces of the *land* (of *Judea*.")—This is taking, in our opinion, too great a licence. Nor does there appear any necessity to paraphrase the sense of εκ της γης λαλει, in John iii. 31.—The received translation is more expressive;—*speaketh of the earth* is more comprehensive than *savours of human imperfection*. We also wish that Mr. F. had cited some of the admirable elucidations of difficult texts in the New Testament, which Soame Jenyns made, and which are not generally known. The title of this work would have appeared less quaint, if the second title only had been inserted—*Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Christ, by the four Evangelists*: the word *Guide* is become too trite to be prefixed to these volumes. S. Q.

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The Poetical Register, and Repository of Fugitive Poetry for 1802. *cr.* 8*vo. pp.* 456. *Rivingtons.*

As this little volume affords a fair specimen of the general poetical character of the present day, a comparison of it with Dodsley's celebrated miscellany, will give a not uninteresting picture of the progress of Poetry in this country during half a century. With such a comparison therefore, we shall preface our review.

If we take a view of the highest walk of poetry, of that which abounds in bold figures, picturesque images, and above all in pathos, which Longinus holds to be one species of the sublime, we must give the preference to the writers of the present time, for though we have certainly nothing to compare with the odes of Gray, or his Elegy, we have numerous compositions where the introduction of the Gothic machinery gives an effect to the terrible, that is not to be found in the more elegant mythology of Greece; not perhaps from any superior horror in the fiction itself, but from its having been impressed on the imagination of most of us in our infancy, as an article of belief; while the other has only been exhibited to us, either as an amusing fable or an irksome task. This distinction may not seem, at first sight, to bear on the most sublime of Gray's Odes, that on the destruction of the Welsh bards; but on considering it attentively, we shall find the machinery of the bards to be that which we receive from the account of them in the Roman writers, not that handed down by tradition from the northern mythologists. The elegy in a country church-yard, has never yet had, and probably never will have, a rival in its peculiar species of excellence; but from all its descriptions being general, if the affecting our sensations so as to produce sympathy even to weeping be a criterion of the pathos (and surely there can be no other) we find this much stronger in many of the interesting tales of distress with which our modern poetry abounds; and for that species of poetry, which consists in bold figures and accurate imagery, we surely can find no poet of that era, who can be put in any comparison with Darwin, neither has that era produced any thing like those beautiful poems, that on the Love of our Country, by Dean Budson, first printed in Croft's Love and Madness, and those on the indigenous (very inaccurately and unclassically called the Aboriginal) Britons, by Mr. Richards; and on Palestine, by Mr. Reginald Heber, which are printed in this volume.

But with regard to that species of poetry which is descriptive of manners and the habits of life, the superiority is decidedly on the side of the former period; and we have nothing now that can be at all put in competition with the fine gentleman and lady of Soame Jenyns, and his other lighter pieces: the Art of Politics and the Man of Taste, of Bramstone; and the Spleen, by Green of the custom-house. Indeed the muse of satire seems now solely confined to the censure of bad writers, as if writing ill was the only crime or folly deserving of censure. But whatever merit there may be in the Pursuits of Literature, the Baviad, or the Mæviad, that merit must die with the ephemeral writers that are the objects of the satire; and these poets would do well to reflect, that while the Moral Epistles of Pope, and his Rape of the Lock, are in every body's hands and in many people's memories, the Dunciad is hardly ever thought of, though the versification is perhaps not equalled by any composition in our language.

It must be remembered that Pope is introduced here only to illustrate an observation, the comparison is extended only to the writers of the present day, with those who immediately succeeded Pope. With him and his predecessor Dryden, notwithstanding the judgments of hypercriticism, there can be no comparison, and still less with Milton.

We shall now select some specimens from the collection:—

The following passage from Heber's Palestine, breathes the true spirit of poetry, except in one very weak line, which we have marked by Italicks, and which we suppose the author adopted, because he would not deviate from the exact words of Scripture, a practice that has deformed the noblest poem in any language, with so many prosaic lines; and for which, (as there can be nothing particularly sacred in the mere verbal arrangement of a translation) we cannot assign any adequate reason:

"O happy once in heaven's peculiar love,
Delight of men below, and saints above!
Though, Salem, now the spoiler's ruffian hand
Has loos'd his hell-hounds o'er thy wasted land;
Though weak, and whelm'd beneath the storms of fate,
Thy house is left unto thee desolate; (A)
Though thy proud stones in cumbrous ruin fall,
And seas of sand o'ertop thy mouldering wall;
Yet shall the Muse to Fancy's ardent view
Each shadowy trace of faded pomp renew:
And as the Seer (B) on Pisgah's topmost brow
With glistening eye beheld the plain below,
With prescient ardour drank the scented gale,
And bade the opening glades of Canaan hail;
Her eagle eye shall scan the prospect wide,
From Carmel's cliffs to Almotana's tide; (C)
The flinty waste, the cedar-tufted hill,
The liquid health of smooth Ardeni's rill;
The grot, where, by the watch-fire's evening blaze, (D)
The robbes riots, or the hermit prays;
Or, where the tempest rives the hoary stone,
The wintry top of giant Lebanon."

The following spirited lines from the same poem, will be read with enthusiasm by every one alive to the sensations of sublime poetry and British patriotism:

"Ye sainted spirits of the warrior dead,
Whose giant force Britannia's armies led! (E)
Whose bickering falchions, foremost in the fight,
Still pour'd confusion on the Soldan's might;

(A) St. Matthew's Gospel, xxiv. 38.

(B) Moses.

(C) Almotana is the oriental name for the Dead Sea, as Ardeni is for Jordan.

(D) The mountains of Palestine are full of caverns, which are generally occupied in one or other of the methods here mentioned. Vide Sandys, Maundrell, and Calmet, *passim.*

(E) All the British nations served under the same banner.

Sono gl' Inglesi sagittari ed hanno
Gente con lor, ch' è più vicina al polo:
Questi de l' alte selve irsuti manda
La divisa dal mondo, ultima Irlanda.
Tasso, Gierusal. Cant. I. 44.

Ireland and Scotland, it is scarcely necessary to observe, were synonimous.

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Lords of the biting axe and beamy spear, (f)
Wide-conquering Edward, lion Richard, hear!—
At Albion's call your crested pride resume,
And burst the marble slumbers of the tomb!
Your sons behold, in arm, in heart the same,
Still press the footsteps of parental fame,
To Salem still their generous aid supply,
And pluck the palm of Syrian chivalry!
" When he, from towery Malta's yielding isle,
And the green waters of reluctant Nile,
The' Apostate Chief,—from Misraim's subject shore
To Acre's walls his trophied banners bore;
When the pale desart mark'd his proud array
And Desolation hop'd an ampler sway;
What hero then triumphant Gaul dismay'd?
What arm repell'd the victor Renegade?
Britannia's champion!—bath'd in hostile blood,
High on the breach the dauntless SEAMAN stood:
Admiring Asia saw the' unequal fight,—
E'en the pale crescent bless'd the Christian's might.
Oh day of death! oh thirst, beyond controul,
Of crimson conquest in the' Invader's soul!
The slain, yet warm, by social footsteps trod,
O'er the red moat supply'd a panting road;
O'er the red moat our conquering thunders flew,
And loftier still the grisly rampire grew.
While proudly glow'd above the rescue'd tower
The wavy cross that mark'd Britannia's power."

From an anonymous Ode called the Spirit of the Storm, we select the following stanzas, we wish our bounds would permit us to insert the whole:

" When fiercely raves the arctic storm,
And howling winds the seas deform,
O'er shaking hills I urge my car
To rule the elemental war.
Proud Nature owns my potent sway,
And trembling bows before my throne,
While round her form the lightnings play,
I mock the feeble sufferer's groan:
'Tis mine the boundless deep to heave
In mountains to the gates of heaven,
And mine the cloud-formed gloom to weave,
Whose shades involve the polar Even.

" From the dark bosom of the cloud,
That bears my form o'er Lapland's flood,
The meteor's vivid flame I urge,
Far glittering o'er the icy surge:
Lured by its ray the native braves
The unknown horrours of the dell,
Where scowling night in gelid caves,
On darkness throned, delights to dwell.
Hear, ye fierce demons of the air,
Preserve yon savage in the wild;
For know your monarch loves to spare
The rude north's tempest-beaten child.

" Where Freedom cheers her western clime,
From Andes' brow that towers sublime,
I hurl the whelming wreaths of snow
To chasmed vales that groan below.
Down his dark rocks the vapours glide,
That mingling seem a surging deep,
While o'er the troubled aërial tide,
On sable wings I proudly sweep;
The dryads of the distant wood
Awake their wildest screams of woe,
As swift I tear the storm-franght cloud
That lays their waving kingdoms low."

(f) The axe of Richard was very famous. See Warton's Hist. of Engl. Poetry, I. 155.

INSCRIPTION ON A HERMITAGE.

In the Centre of a Copse, intersected by irregular Walks, at Micclesfield Green, Herts, the Residence of Lord Edward Bentinck.

BY THE AUTHOR OF CALVARY.

" Here sleep, Ambition! be this cell thy tomb;—
Vanish, and give the calmer passions room.
Avaunt, vain world! this solitary grove
Nor fears thy malice, nor invites thy love.
And, though like thine its dark and winding maze
Tangles our path, and for a while betrays,
Let patience guide, and, one short trial past,
Content shall greet us in this spot at last."

The insertion of this short piece, recalls to us our omission of a name in our comparison, that stands high among the writers of the present day. Versatility of genius is one of its first attributes, to this Mr. Cumberland has a distinguished claim. It is no common merit to have written such a poem as Calvary, such a comedy as the West Indian, and such moral essays as the Observers.

At the end of the volume are some short criticisms on Poetry and the Drama, they are in general liberal and candid, but do not abound much with critical acumen. E.

Petrarca; a Selection of Sonnets from various Authors, With an Introductory Dissertation on the Origin and Structure of the Sonnet. foolscap 8vo. pp. 232. With three Engravings by Tomkins. C. & R. Baldwin.

To this selection is prefixed an Introductory Dissertation on the Origin and Structure of the Sonnet, which however only slightly notices its Italian origin, and mentions such of our poets as have occasionally adopted this species of composition, from Lord Surrey to the writers of the present day. The selector is at some pains to contravert the opinion of Miss Seward, that " Little elegies of *four* (read *three*) stanzas and a couplet, are no more sonnets than they are epic poems." This assertion of Miss Seward's is certainly a very bold one, for there must be a much greater resemblance between two little poems containing a single thought compressed into fourteen lines, whatever the arrangement of those fourteen lines may be, than between these little elegies and a long narrative poem of several thousand verses; but still we must be of opinion that these little elegies are not sonnets. The return of the rhyme in the sonnet does produce some effect, and this effect whether pleasing or displeasing, is the essential distinction of it from other compositions, but the confining the poem exactly to fourteen lines, has no effect at all; and only compels the poet either to compress or dilate his ideas without any reason whatever. When once the shackles of the returning rhymes are broken in the sonnet, we see no reason why it may not be also delivered from the bed of Procrustes, and consist of thirteen or fifteen lines, as well as of exactly fourteen.

But notwithstanding the restraint imposed on the imagination of the poet, both by the recurrence of the rhymes and the limitation of the lines, many compositions of both kinds of the sonnet in our language, possess uncommon merit; and as the editor of Petrarca has discovered an elegant and discriminating

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taste in the selection he has laid before the public, we trust we shall better please our readers, by selecting from this little volume such specimens as our limits will admit, than by entering further into a critical investigation of the two species of sonnet.

Sir Brooke Boothby.

SONNET XXI.

"Not silvery stars that gem the robe of night;
Nor painted vessels, bounding o'er the main;
Nor gallant bands of warriours on the plain;
Nor theatres, in gorgeous pomp bedight;

Not labour's song, that makes the task seem light;
Nor tales of love, in high and artful strain;
Nor by fresh fountain's side, the virgin train,
Winning the ear with accents of delight;

Can charm my sorrows: to these weary eyes,
The world is one vast desert, wild and drear;
Dead, like my hopes, all Nature's works appear;

And sunk the sun of joy, no more to rise.
The step of Grace, and Beauty's radiant bloom,
Are but mementos of the mouldering tomb."

In this beautiful effusion of parental grief, as in several others of the same poet, the legitimate rhyme of the sonnet is preserved in the two first quartains and neglected in the last six lines; a licence, that in our opinion gives a freer scope to the writer, without at all altering the effect produced by the regular sonnet.

Helen Maria Williams.

TO TWILIGHT.

"Meek Twilight! soften the declining day,
And bring the hour my pensive spirit loves;
When o'er the mountain slow descends the ray
That gives to silence the deserted groves.
Ah, let the happy court the morning still,
When, in her blooming loveliness array'd,
She bids fresh beauty light the vale or hill,
And rapture warble in the vocal shade.
Sweet is the odour of the morning's flower,
And rich in melody her accents rise;
Yet dearer to my soul the shadowy hour,
At which her blossoms close, her music dies—
For then, while languid nature droops her head,
She wakes the tear 'tis luxury to shed."

Sotheby.

A MOTHER TO HER SLEEPING CHILD.

SONNET II.

"Ah, happy child! when hanging o'er thy sleep
A mother fondly bends, watching the while,
Upon thy glowing cheek the dimpled smile
Soft playing, as the breeze that fans the deep
In the mild summer-noon: oh! may this sigh,
That will have way, not rudely smite thine ear!
Nor dropping on thy placid brow this tear
Wake thee! at sight of grief, thou knowest not why,
Poor babe! thy sympathizing tear might flow.
Sleep on, nor taste before thy time the woe
That racks me, fearful of thy future doom.
How bright thy dawn of life! ah, may thy eve
Set thus unclouded by misfortune's gloom!
Sleep then in peace, nor hear the sigh I heave."

This is a happy imitation of the fragment of Simonides, where Danae is represented weeping over her infant.

We have selected these sonnets from collections not so generally read as those of Bowles, Charlotte Smith and Mrs. Robinson, as they may be supposed to be in the hands of most of our poetical readers. Without any desire to depreciate the talents of those who have shone peculiarly in the sonnet, it seems to be a species of composition in which writers who have excelled in the higher classes of poetry have generally underwritten themselves, as seems exemplified in the sonnets of Gray, of Cowper and of Warton in this selection, without recurring to the more striking examples of Shakspeare and Milton. We cannot conclude this article better than by the very just comparison of the Greek epigram with the sonnet, quoted from Dr. Drake in a note on the Introductory Dissertation, p. xviii:

"Among the Ancients nothing makes so near an approach to the Sonnet as the Greek Epigram; the simplicity, sweetness, and perspicuity of these compositions, which are generally occupied in illustrating a single idea, want little but the metrical arrangement and restriction of the Italians, to form the legitimate Sonnet. The praise of a picture, a statue, or a poem, will be found in the *Anthologia* to be a common subject of the exquisite pieces, which, in many instances, display so much beauty of sentiment, and such a delicious vein of expression, that with all who possess great delicacy of taste, they must ever be favourites. Yet few touches of the pictoresque, or of what has been termed still-life painting, so common in the effusions of the modern writers of Sonnets are discoverable in the Greek."

This admirable piece of criticism is a complete refutation of the flippant censure of the Greek epigram by Lord Chesterfield.

This selection consists of nearly two hundred of, with few exceptions, the best Sonnets in our language; and we must not dismiss it without mentioning that both the printer and engraver have contributed their shares to render it a most elegant little volume. E.

England's Ægis, or the Military Energies of the Empire. By John Cartwright, *Esq.* 12mo. 225 *pp. Phillips.*

There is no feature which more remarkably distinguishes the last from the present war, than the curious contrast produced by the most violent opponents of the former having become the most determined advocates of the latter. The furious invectives which were formerly poured forth against Mr. Pitt, are now recast and showered in liquid torrents on the head of Bonaparte; and the fiery spirits of the Corresponding Societies, which at one time had nearly lighted up the flames of Gallican liberty about our ears, are now more usefully employed in kindling the wrath of the nation against the Corsican Usurper.

The name of Major Cartwright, the author of the performance before us, is familiar to the public ear; nor is this the first time he has undertaken to arouse the *energies of the Empire*. The Major is not however to be considered as having in the smallest degree relinquished his former principles; he is still, as he loudly informs us, the strenuous advocate of *freedom and the constitution*; he is a friend of the war, but not of its conductors; and from his Dedication it appears, that he has not been seduced, by any Somerset-house lures, from his former allegiance to the Man of the peop-

This Dedication is indeed a master-piece of its kind; and would do no discredit even to a French Prefect addressing his Consular Majesty. It is, however, couched in mystery; and is addressed merely to *a Retired Statesman*; but the application is not difficult. "To whom," it commences, "in the present conflict for empire and existence, ought to be dedicated THE ENERGIES OF ENGLAND, but to him who of all others possesses a mind the most energetic? To whom shall be dedicated *a proud effort* to restore to full vigour and energy the MILITARY BRANCH OF THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION, but to him who has the most comprehensive knowledge, and holds the purest principles, of that Constitution?" A *proud effort is* then made, with the assistance of not a few more *capitals*, to shew what a giant Mr. Fox is, and what pigmies his opponents. We must indeed allow that the Major starts rather a puzzling question to our Ministers of the last forty years, when he asks, "Which of them can make the honest boast, that HE RESTORED PURITY TO THE GOVERNMENT, AND ENERGY TO THE CONSTITUTION?" Mr. Fox, we recollect, excused himself from his age and other disqualifications, for not becoming a Volunteer. Major Cartwright however, is determined, if Mr. F. cannot be a soldier, at least to make him good for something in the present crisis; and with this view offers him the situation of assistant-armourer to himself; "Assist, Sir, in buckling the death-striking ÆGIS on the dread arm of BRITANNIA; that so graced, and with her other attributes adorned, she may appear another Goddess of Wisdom, &c.—"

From an *Epistolary Address to the Volunteers*, which follows this Dedication, we find that it is not his great patron alone, that elevates our author to his prose-saddled Pegasus. The loftiness of the stile is not here a whit curtailed, only the *capitals* are more rare, and common Roman letters scattered with a liberal hand among the Italicks in which the Address is printed, are thought quite sufficient to point out its notabilities to the ordinary volunteer. The gentlemen volunteers must however possess better capacities than we can boast of, if they understand all the fine things said to them; the following truss of metaphors for instance: "To the sacred book of the CONSTITUTION, first composed in the *Saxon* tongue and the *Saxon* style, belongs an inestimable leaf on the subject of military defence and common security, which unfaithful trustees, substituting in its place an interpolation of unsound doctrine, big with ruin, disease, and death, have long withholden from the *English* eye, although its contents ought to be imprinted on the *English* heart."

Between this address and the main body of the work, a Preface still intervenes, in which our author gives us to understand, that the *Military Ægis* he talks of is A VITAL PART OF THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION. To the Preface succeeds an Introduction chiefly consisting of extracts from Sir William Jones on the virtues of the *posse comitatus*. The first part of the work itself comprehending the *Constitutional Energies for repelling Invasion*, is principally a republication of extracts from a work on nearly the same subject published in 1799, interspersed with various new matters. The object of it seems to be to prove, that the English Constitution possesses a Military as well as a Civil branch; and that the General Defence Acts were merely some approximation towards restoring a part of the Constitution, which the corruption of successive administrations had suffered to fall into disuse. There are also various plans proposed for bringing about this wished-for renovation; but these are altogether beyond the comprehension of us critics, who are accustomed to expect in plans a beginning, a middle, and an end. We must own, however, that there are various extremely good observations interspersed, particularly in the frequent quotations from several great legal authorities who are without scruple pressed into the service. The author is indeed completely successful in combating one foolish apprehension, the fear of danger arising from a general arming of the population; an apprehension which may be justly classed with the terrors of the man in the caricature shop, who is seen quaking at the approach of a tall fellow behind him—his own shadow. We must not omit to observe, that among other means employed by the author to rouse the national energies, there are divers pieces of verse, called songs, to one of which is subjoined the offer of a broad sword of twenty guineas value, to him who shall suit it with the best piece of musical composition in the style of a popular ballad.

In an expostulation with the framers of the General Defence Act, our author endeavours to shew that the substitution of Volunteer services for these, serves merely to perpetuate the ignorance of the English Constitution, which considers every man as a Volunteer when the nation is in danger. Several opinions of statesmen, historians, and philosophers are adduced, to shew that standing armies are neither sufficient for internal security nor external defence. It would not have been difficult to swell the catalogue; for every man who has no private interest to maintain the contrary, must be convinced that a nation can no more exert her whole strength through the means of that small portion of her population, her standing army, than a man who has one eye blinded, one hand bound behind his back, and his feet moreover put in stocks, could by means of his remaining hand exert his whole force against his antagonist.

The concluding part of the *Ægis* contains many useful hints to ministers on State Reformations; but it is to be lamented that those to whom such hints are directed are always the last to profit by them. As the first step towards rendering us invulnerable to Bonaparte and his myrmidons, our author would have us set about rooting out those internal cankers which prey on our vitals, the long list of abuses in the state. If we could only persuade Bonaparte to stay where he is till this were done, it might not be a bad scheme; but if he should understand that we were about this salutary work, there is reason to suspect that his philanthropy would induce him to tender his good offices, and insist upon not being refused.

To the *Ægis* or *Shield*, is added a description of the nature and uses of the Britannic *spear*. Its nature is described in the following terms: "Spears and pikes are merely two *species* of one *genus*; and indeed by

the word *spear*, we mean a *short pike*; as by the word *pike*, we mean a *long spear*." The utility of this weapon for many purposes cannot be questioned; but it is idle to compare its advantages to that of the gun and bayonet, which unite the qualities of destroying both at a distance and in close combat.

The *Ægis*, considered as a display of the Military Energies of this country, its professed object, bears a resemblance by no means faint to our present military establishment. It is made up of many different articles, but how they ever came to be sorted together, or by what magic they are to be amalgamated into one mass, is beyond the power of the author himself to unfold. It is great pity that the following sentence which occurs within a few pages of the end, did not appear towards the beginning of the performance: "I must first, with Sir William Jones, recommend that we acquire *distinct ideas* on our subjects, before we offer plans." Ω.

Churchill's Poetical Works, with Life and Notes.

(Concluded from page 204.)

The Rosciad, as our Editor observes, appears to be built on the old notion of the session of the Poets, in which, on the demise of the Laureat, the poets of the time were supposed to make their claim to the laurel in the presence of Apollo; but we can less agree in the opinion, that when Churchill asserted his claim to the poem, he "at one bound sprung from the most perfect obscurity to the *first rank* in literary fame." This expression is too strong. He sprung to the rank he was intended to hold, but with all our respect for Churchill's talents, we cannot consider it as the *first* rank. If, however, we view the subject of this poem, it will appear astonishing that he should have hazarded his fame, or, to use a theatrical phrase, have made his *debut* in a part so unlikely to ensure a lasting applause. The theatre on which his abilities were to be exhibited, was, to all human appearance, one of the most confined. He chose no subject of general importance, nothing that was connected with morality, politics, or science, nothing that could be understood on the continent, and nothing that could be read with interest beyond the purlieus of Drury-lane and Covent-garden. He chose as the objects of his panegyric or censure the actors of those two theatres, a description of persons far less known to the public at large at that time than their successors, since provincial theatres have been multiplied, and the talents of our first-rate performers, have begun to be as accurately appreciated at Edinburgh and Dublin as they are in London or Bath. The subject, therefore, appeared the most unpromising for extensive fame that could be conceived. Yet Churchill was an instance, and not a solitary one, that poets are less admired for the matter than the manner, and accordingly the Rosciad soon raised him to a very enviable rank among his contemporaries, although perhaps none of them had selected a subject less interesting to the kingdom at large. Dramatic criticism was then in its infancy, and players were not, in general, released from the proscription of religious prejudice, or moral caution.

The notes appended to the Rosciad in this edition are biographical or explanatory, and in both cases, judicious and amusing. But in a few instances; the Editor has, we think, imbibed a small portion of his author's severity, and in some others, is not perfectly accurate, and after bestowing so much general praise on his industry and taste, we shall with the less scruple, make a remark here and there on his notes.

Rosciad, p. 5. Tate Wilkinson has been dead for some time. He wrote eight volumes of his theatrical history, in which are many notices of his early contemporaries. We cannot agree that "he ranked below mediocrity."

P. 9. Murphy, "is the author, or rather the translator and purloiner from the French, of some tolerable plays and farces." Murphy's plays, "The Way to Keep Him," &c. surely merit a more honourable notice. That he borrowed from the French is undeniable, but he has borrowed honestly and improved on what he borrowed so much, that we wish our modern play-writers would follow his example. His "Life of Garrick" is indeed "meagre," but some allowance is due to his situation and age. We agree with our Editor however, and with Churchill, in their opinion of his political writings, and shall transcribe a note which may afford a specimen of the entertainment and information collected in this department.

"Murphy in the Auditor, of which we in a former note mentioned him to be the editor, undertook, in concert with Dr. Smollett, who was the editor of the Briton, a systematic defence of Lord Bute's administration, which commenced 29th November 1762; on the same day was published No. 1 of the Briton; No. 1 of the North Briton, principally conducted by Wilkes and Churchill, appeared June 5; and No. 1, of the Auditor, June 10. With respect to the last of these, a very ingenious instance of literary jockeyship occurred; the editor of the North Briton caused a letter, signed Viator, to be conveyed to the conductor of the Auditor, reprobating the arts of falsehood, which had been employed to set every acquisition made by Lord Bute's treaty of peace in a contemptible light, and more particularly the acquisition of Florida—"Than which," says Viator, "I never saw a finer country. The only at present profitable tracts of Florida are certain large bogs, which produce an excellent kind of fuel, being pretty much the same thing which in England is called peat or turf; of this there is by far a greater quantity than would serve the inhabitants for firing, were they ten times more numerous than they are. Now, Sir, it is a fact notoriously true, and of which I have been an eye-witness, that all kind of fuel is extremely scarce in the West Indies; I do not mean for boiling the sugars, for with that the trash of the sugar-cane sufficiently supplies them; but for domestic uses, the scarcity is such that I can safely affirm, that not one of the lower kind of planters has a comfortable fire in his parlour or bedchamber; nay, even amongst the better sort I have seldom seen a good fire, though at the severest season of the year. Is it then a small advantage to add, and that at a cheap rate, to the conveniencies and comforts of our fellow-subjects, fellow-creatures, and fellow-christians?'

"This letter immediately appeared in the 31st Number of the Auditor, introduced by a remark of the editor, that he gave it exactly as he received it, that he might 'throw all the lights in his power upon the solid value of the advantages procured by the late negociation.' The North Briton, in his 30th Number, reprinted this letter, with his

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best thanks to the Auditor, for having so obligingly inserted it. Florida turf now burnt most violently, the situation of the Auditor became insufferable, he bore it as long as he could, but at last perished in the flames. The kindness of his correspondent reached beyond death, and thus inscribed his tomb—

Siste, *Viator!*

"Deep in his bog the Auditor lies still,
His labors finish'd, and worn out his quill;
His fires extinguish'd, and his works unread,
In peace he sleeps with the forgotten dead;
With heath and sedge O may his tomb be drest,
And his own turf lie light upon his breast.

"Et quocunque volent, animum Auditoris agunto.
"Hor. Ep. ad Pisones."

In p. 44. is a character of Rolt, which in many respects is injurious. We recommend to the perusal of our Editor, a Life of Rolt, which appeared in the European Magazine for June or July 1803.

P. 47. Mrs. Clive—she owed many of the comforts of her latter days to her fortunate acquaintance with Lord Orford, who assigned to her the cottage near Strawberry-hill, and often mentions her in his letters.

P. 48. "Mrs. Vincent, *now* Mrs. Mills"—Query? should it not be *afterwards?*

P. 63. It is said that Churchill correctly appreciated the merit of Quin as an actor; and he probably did; but comparing the date of his retirement from the stage 1753, with the dates of Churchill's life, we suspect the latter could not have known much of Quin from actual observation, certainly nothing of his best days. He might, however, with safety adopt as second hand, a character about which there was no dispute.

The Apology.—P. 87. Murphy certainly wrote the "Ode to the Naiads of Fleet-ditch," and it amply deserves the censure bestowed upon it. Yet when he collected his works, he rejected this angry and absurd effusion.

P. 92. This note on Dr. Smollett is not accompanied with dates—What is said on Sir Launcelot Greaves, belongs, if we mistake not, to Peregrine Pickle.

Night. The principal object of this poem, our Editor justly observes, was to exculpate the poet and the friend (Lloyd) from the censure of the world on the score of those irregularities in conduct, which the celebrity of the foregoing poems rendered more conspicuous in the author of them, by inducing those who smarted under his lash, to make researches into his private character.—As an apology, however, it is far from being satisfactory, yet there are some admirable passages in it, and a man of virtue will be ready to say, *Cum talis sis, utinam noster esses.* His ridicule of the frippery of modern poetry, and his description of strolling players, as excellent specimens of humour in the *Apology*, are not superior to the vein in which he laughs in this poem at the patriotic turn of the nation, which, however, he and his compeers were studying to promote by every means in their power.

The Prophecy of Famine. Wilkes said well of this poem, that 'he was sure it would take, as it was at once personal, political and poetical." Its poetical beauties are numerous. What have we better than his description of famine, yet we know not if all its merit can compensate for the malignant illiberality of its general spirit?—There is much useful information in the notes on this poem, but we do not approve the manner in which our Editor speaks of the conduct of the church of Scotland towards the author of Douglas. The laws and constitution of that church justified their act, and the case is not altered by measuring the laxity of one church, or nation against the rigidity of another. Without assuming, or pretending to assume the latter character ourselves, we may be permitted to say, that there is a place where the genius of a clergyman must appear to more advantage than on any of our theatres.

The Epistle to Hogarth is introduced, as indeed all these poems are, by a well written history of the causes and parties which gave rise to it. The passage on the operation of envy, the address to Hogarth, and the pathetic lines on the fate of genius, must ever claim admiration.

The Duellist, the versification of which is careless, but in which some splendid passages might be pointed out, is illustrated with a few critical notes, and a historical account of the duel between Martin and Wilkes, which gave rise to it. The Alexander Dun mentioned in p. 216, was certainly a lunatic, and brother to the wife of a philosopher of high fame and distinguished talents, lately deceased. Dun was at that time an officer in the army, and was ever afterwards confined.—The Notes on this poem, respecting Warburton, display a spirit and candour highly commendable.

Gotham is properly characterized as a poem the contents of which gave scarcely any intimation of the shape it might in its progress assume. The publication of the third book, however, developed the author's plan, by his drawing in his own person, the portrait of a perfect sovereign. The poem abounds with many exquisite passages, and just delineations of character, and affords the only specimen of the author's powers in the walk of rural imagery; but notwithstanding these and the many other beauties it contains, the plan was in itself so defective, and the vein of egotism that pervades it, appeared so disgusting, as, together with its tedious digressions, to have prevented its acquiring that degree of popularity which all Churchill's former productions had obtained. It contains, however, less personal satire than any other of his poems, and, his Editor thinks, probably for that reason, and from the general nature of its subject, may excite more interest at this day, than it did on its being first offered to the public.

The Author is one of Churchill's most pleasing performances. The "trammels of a college life" has been pointed out as an excellent piece of irony, but it appears to us rather a gross caricature; still this will ever be a favourite subject with men who have despised the regularity, or have not enjoyed the advantages of academical education.

Of the Conference the best passage is where he alludes to his unhappy connection with Miss C. Our Editor remarks with just feeling, that "self-condemnation so just, so public, and severe, if it does not excite compassion, must at least disarm revenge."

The Ghost is introduced by a very minute and

accurate history of the imposture which Churchill seized as the subject of his poem, and which we would recommend to the perusal of the public particularly at a time when, for whatever reason, similar frauds have been attempted.—This poem, however, is of the inferior kind, although there are some bold descriptions, and humorous passages equal to any of his productions. Modern poets might be edified by the ridicule on Ah's! and Oh's! There is much information in the notes appended to the Ghost, and much indeed was wanted. That the Egyptian hall, however, in the Mansion-house received its name from the examination of Mary Squires, the *gypsey*, is perhaps only a piece of traditional humour. P. 71, Dr. Kippis's remark on Dr. Johnson's calling Churchill "a shallow fellow" appears to us erroneous. Dr. J. evidently meant by the epithet that Churchill was not a man of depth or *profundity*, as he would probably have said, and certainly there was a superficiality in all Churchill's compositions, owing to their hasty production, which might justify any critic in pronouncing that, *quoad* depth of thought, and conclusive reasoning, Churchill was really "a shallow fellow." But contemptuous epithets ought certainly to be banished from the republic of letters, and probably will, the same day that "hatred, malice and all uncharitableness" between rival poets, take their leave.

The CANDIDATE was written on occasion of the contest between the Earls of Hardwicke and Sandwich, for the high-stewardship of the University of Cambridge. The prominent feature in this poem is the character of Lord Sandwich, in delineating which, however, our poet transgressed the rules he wished to have established in his own case, by dwelling, we will not say with what justice, on the vices of the *man*. But it must be allowed on the other hand, that his lordship's zeal for *religion* was a provocation almost irresistible. Wilkes contending for liberty, upon patriotic principles, and Lord Sandwich inveighing against an indecent poem, from motives of piety, were equally copious sources of ridicule to the wits of the respective parties.

The remaining poems, The FAREWELL, the TIMES, INDEPENDENCE, the JOURNEY, and the FRAGMENT of a DEDICATION, have various, yet in few instances, prominent merit. They will be read with interest, however, as the last productions of a man the whole of whose literary life begun and ended within the short space of three years. They are all illustrated by useful notes. In one of these, the Editor seems to believe, on the authority of Churchill's brother, that the SERMONS were really the production of our poet. This ought perhaps to make us retract our remarks on that publication in the last LITERARY JOURNAL, (col. 201) but we have yet our doubts on the subject. Internal evidence against them is so exceedingly strong, that we think it cannot be rebutted by the circumstance of his having sold them to Messrs. Flexney and Kearsley. Our Editor says, "They were written before the appearance of the Rosciad, but were not published until after that and *other poems* had established the author's reputation." The want of dates here is important. This might seem to imply that Churchill published them before his poetical career entirely terminated. We, on the contrary, are of opinion, as far as memory and some research can justify us, that they were not published in his life-time. The first volume, or what in the catalogues was called Vol. I. of his Sermons, was published by Flexney in January or February 1765. Churchill might love money, or want money and sell these Sermons, whether his own or his father's, but that he could for a moment suppose his poetical reputation would screen such poor prose from contempt, appears to us totally inadmissible.

Upon the whole, however, the Editor of this new edition of Churchill has executed his task in a manner highly useful to the illustration of his author, and creditable to his own taste and means of information. There may be a few things we could have wished to blot, (as the latter part of a note respecting Dr. Dodd) and in some instances certain living characters are mentioned in a manner somewhat too flippant, but on the other hand, there is so much to commend, so many amusing anecdotes and facts brought together, that we shall not be surprized if Churchill's poetry revives, and he be allowed the rank he deserves to hold among English bards. Nor can we close this hasty sketch of the edition before us, without approving the judgment which induced our Editor to let certain contractions and allusions remain unexplained, rather than stir up any part of those animosities which obstructed the author's fame. This may disappoint impertinent curiosity, but it can be no injury to the works, or to the age. Churchill drew a variety of bad characters; it is but suppressing the name he gave, and the means of application may be supplied in after times. In poetry and other works of fiction, vice ought to be held up to public detestation, and this end will be answered, whether the sketch be taken from nature or imagination.—We had almost forgot to mention that an excellent portrait of Churchill is prefixed to these volumes. R.

Sketches on the intrinsic Strength, Military and Naval force of France and Russia; with Remarks on their present Connection, political Influence, and future Projects. Hague 1803. *London sold by J. Budd, large* 8vo. *pp.* 216.

This publication comes before us in a shape somewhat singular. It is an English book, purporting to be printed abroad, and bearing every appearance, in type and paper, of having been so; yet avowedly and expressly written for the people of England. We have no objection to books printed abroad, if they can be sold the cheaper in England; but according to the present rate of duty on foreign books imported, even considering the heavy tax on paper, and the high wages of printers, we do not see how that can happen. It is the interest of the reader to obtain books cheap; but in the present instance this is far from being the case; and in respect of neatness, or elegance in the printing there is vast inferiority. Even with regard to correctness, for which the eye of the author, and by consequence his personal presence may be neces-

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sary, there is nothing gained. And we do not think there is a press at this moment in the kingdom, which would not have been ashamed to have issued such a piece of work, though the author had been among the Chinese. Was novelty the motive? And was it expected that this would create a sort of foolish curiosity after the performance, and encourage a great confidence in its statements and opinions?

The form of the composition has some title to novelty as well as the circumstances of the publication. A very small book has a pretty long preface, and a pretty long introduction. And in the body of the work, the notes are probably but a little short of the text. Thus the appendages of the book, are by far the greater part of the book.

It is one of the effects of the art of printing, which has often been railed at, though it is, in our opinion, one attended with more good than evil, that every man may, and many men will, give their opinions to the public, as they spring up hastily in their minds, and in as crude a state as they would commit them to their common-place book, to wait for a future revisal. Even thus facts and hints are communicated, which assist the man of methodical and deliberate inquiry; though the labour of collecting them is often very great, buried as they are in heaps of rubbish.

Those hasty writers are in general greatly above being shackled by the rules of method; and are armed with the most supreme contempt for the opinions, persons and fortunes, of the race of people called critics, who according to an old, and beautiful sarcasm, live in elevated rooms, dine on scanty fare, and presume to find fault when authors offend against the principles of grammar and taste. "As to the approbation, or censure of garret critics," says our present author, "the consequential hum of place-men, or the sneer of official politicians, they are to us perfectly indifferent."

The author or authors of this book, for they always speak of themselves in the plural number, and we shall do so too, represent themselves as having lived, and conversed much abroad, and thus to have qualified themselves for their task; in particular they say that in the last 20 months, preceding the publication of the work, they had visited every department of France. The book has certainly the air of being written by an eye-witness of the political state of many of the continental nations; and by an intelligent eye-witness too; though not of that accurate judgment, and patient spirit of inquiry, on which one would implicitly rely. The work was published during the interval of peace succeeding the treaty of Amiens, and therefore a number of the remarks apply more to the state of things at that, than at the present time.

The work is intended to exhibit a sketch of the present state of Europe, of which this volume, on France and Russia, contains only the first part. These are not only the leading nations, according to our authors, but the nations by whom the power of Europe may be considered as absorbed:

"As matters now stand, the political powers and military force of continental Europe are to be considered as concentered in the governments of France and Russia. These two states, have, each in its sphere, fought themselves over the frontiers of resistance; in understanding with one another, no power, or combination of powers can check, or interrupt the operations of either of them. South of the Danube and the Elbe, Europe is directly and indirectly subject to France; and the coasts of Barbary and Morocco will forthwith be colonized under her authority. North of the Elbe and Danube to the Frozen ocean is under the dominion, and immediate control of Russia; Asiatic Turkey and Persia may also soon fall under her yoke. If Austria and Prussia assume a sort of independency of one another, that very assumption secures the dependency of both, upon the Czar and the Consul: no doubt it will therefore be allowed, and encouraged, until both these governments can be dispensed with. How long the chiefs of those two mighty empires may agree, and continue to pursue their present system, cannot, perhaps at this moment be determined; we shall therefore, in as far as relates to their neighbourhood, political ties and commercial intercourse with Great Britain, consider both France and Russia in their present state, and as they now stand relatively to the British empire."

The sketch of the state of France, contains observations on the soil of the republic, on the manufactures, on the fisheries, on the maritime trade, on the military strength, and on the politics. The object of all these observations is to represent France as extremely formidable. Several of them are very just, and important; but several of them are abundantly puerile. To enter into an exact criticism of them it would be necessary to write a book much longer than that criticized. For the author throws out his opinions upon every branch of politics, speculative or practical, but generally leaves his reader to think of the evidence for them.

The political system of the French republic is represented to be, "neither more nor less than *an universal ascendancy raised upon natural sources sufficient to maintain a preponderant power.*" The author enters into a pretty long detail of the means intended or likely to be pursued for the accomplishment of this object, in which the reader will find some solid remarks mixed with others sufficiently fanciful.

The opinion, respecting foreign governments, of a man acquainted with them by actual residence, and not devoid of intelligence, is often valuable. We shall therefore transcribe what is said respecting Austria and Prussia:

"The dominions of the House of Austria command a large proportion of the most valuable gifts of nature; they abound with all the necessaries of life; and with every thing that can in any wise contribute to the ease and happiness of mankind. When we feel the salubrious climate, see the richness of the soil, and contemplate the happy situation of these countries, the vicinity of the ocean and commercial intercourse with the new world, which others enjoy, lose their value and importance.

"Firmly organized under an intelligent government, the Austrian monarchy might soon become the most wealthy and powerful nation in Europe: In its present state, it is a body disjointed: the several members are at constant enmity with one another; and they are all but slightly attached to their head. When a stranger passes from Tyrol into Austria, from thence into Hungary, Bohemia and Gallicia, he is apt to think that he is passing the frontiers of states in open hostility. Their barrier-system, and the nature of the civil and municipal government of the respective departments, keep the inhabitants of the several

provinces, with the produce of their industry, as much separated, as if they belonged to different sovereigns.

"The weight of the public debt is now become insupportable, the taxes are oppressive and annually more and more deficient; national industry and the produce of the soil have been upon the decline these forty years; and in that period the expenditure of the government is tripled. The whole system of finance is complicate; vexatious and nugatory; and the military, or militia-laws, are partial, void of energy, and absurd.

"What opposition or resistance, can Austria, in this situation, make against the military republic of France?"

"In most of the continental states of Europe, the public imposts bear heavy on industry; and in some countries the produce of property is over-taxed. In the Austrian dominions, the several denominations of land-tax, amount, at this time, to upwards of 33 per cent. of the rental, or income of the proprietors: and the contributions on the peasantry, or cultivators, exceed 50 per cent of the produce of their possessions. Mechanics, manufacturers and merchants, or the burghers of all descriptions, pay by law 16 per cent of their income, but in fact they pay 20 per cent. besides excise, barrier and frontier-tolls, assessed taxes, &c.

"The Prussian monarchy is a patched edifice; its dominions have neither frontier nor center; its subjects have no country, nor do they form a nation; and the soul of the army is long departed. The privileged nobility only being eligible to possess landed property, the soil is not so heavily taxed as in Austria; but the Prussian cultivators, peasantry, and bourgeois, can be considered as nothing more than menial servants to the government and the army; the produce of their industry is entirely absorbed by taxes and military contributions. In the inferior principalities of Germany, the public may be said to be nearly in the same state as in Prussia. Denmark is the state in Europe, where the public imposts are the least vexatious and least detrimental to industry."

With regard to Russia, a few observations are made on its immense and unparalleled resources; and the alarming purposes, the subjugation of the Turkish empire, the invasion of Indostan, &c. to which they may be directed; and then a number of severe strictures, many of them very just, are made on the behaviour of Great Britain toward the northern powers. And last of all is considered, the possibility of an union between France and Russia for the subjugation of Europe and Asia. At the end are given the contents of the intended second part of these sketches which is to contain a general view of the politics and diplomatic history of Great Britain, from the peace of Utrecht to the present time. M.

Plan of National Improvement, pointing out the Means to render Great Britain independent of Supplies of Corn from Abroad; to extend the British Fisheries, and augment the Military and Naval Strength of the Empire, without Expence or Inconvenience to the Public. To which are added, Remarks on the several Attempts that have been made to invade the British Islands; and an Exposition of Bonaparte's grand Project to conquer Great Britain and Ireland; with Observations on the present Invasion of Hanover. large 8vo. pp. 180. *Brunswick,* 1803. *London, sold by Budd.*

The observations which we made on the place, and mode of printing the preceding performance, "The Sketches on the State of France," &c. are applicable to this. Nor is it much superior to the former in the regularity, or care of the composition, nearly as great a proportion of the one as of the other being fastened to the text in the form of notes.

In this volume, small, and irregular in form as it may be, a great deal, however, of solid and important matter is contained. It calls, and with no feeble voice, the attention of the public, and of the government to two objects which ought to occupy the very highest station in British policy, the improvement of the agriculture, and of the fisheries of the united kingdom. It has long been a matter of astonishment, grief, and indignation to those who really know the interest of their country, and desire its welfare, to observe the agitation, and uproar often made about a foreign island, or the reception or exclusion of a few paltry commodities by a foreign country, when so much is yet to be done to the land bounded by our own shores; and when the prosecution of the fisheries can hardly be said to be begun. For two hundred years have we been making laws, waging war, and concluding peace for the interests of foreign trade; during all which time, not one legislative act of the least importance has appeared to forward agriculture, or even to remove the impolitic disadvantages under which it is placed; and so little attention has been paid to the fisheries, that any regulations which the legislature has made, have been worse than nothing. From this unfortunate bias of our economical policy, it is derived, that while we boast of the unrivalled prosperity, and riches of our country, there is not, as is asserted in this work, a part of Europe, if you except the wretched countries of Spain and Portugal, and those north of the Elbe, which is not better peopled than Great-Britain.

The writer begins his preface with a very apt and striking similitude. "In some great cities," says he, "where I have been, the police was so regulated, that should the inhabitants have felt the floors cracking under their feet, none but the watchmen were permitted to cry fire; and from indolence, interest, or other causes, these guardians seldom saw the flames, at least they never gave the alarm until the roof fell in. This sort of police, has, it seems, been long acted upon by all the governments of Europe; to expose the frailties of a falling state, or to point out the means of rendering permanent a powerful empire, is, in an individual, a presumption which the rulers of civil society will never suffer to pass with impunity." No one is allowed to cry fire but the watchman, and he is either indolent, or has some other good reason for concealing the evil, till it is too often incurable.

By the progress of society, and the course of events in Europe, Great Britain, at the peace of Amiens was placed, as our author thought, in a situation, in which a bold system of national improvement was absolutely necessary, to enable her to maintain her rank among the nations, and to ward off some evils of great magnitude with which she was threatened. It was this consideration, he says, which induced him to draw up the following plan for the improvement of the agriculture and of the fisheries of the united kingdom.

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"To maintain a moral energy in a commonwealth, and to give vigour to public measures, the real state of the nation," he says, "should, in a clear and candid exposition of simple facts, be always before the community." He proposes therefore, and undoubtedly with great wisdom, as a preliminary to all efforts of improvement, an accurate investigation made by the government and published to the nation of the powers and resources of the empire, which he proposes to order in the following manner:

"First. Of the natural sources of all descriptions contained within the united kingdom;—what proportion of them is explored, what progress may be made in the exploration of those yet unexplored, and to what degree of improvement the whole is susceptible of being carried.

"2. Of the present state of our fisheries; to what extent they may be carried on; the advantages which might accrue to the nation from their being encouraged, and the means most eligible to promote that encouragement.

"3. Of the political and military state of our possessions abroad; whether they are, or can be made secure within, to repel any attack or combination which may be formed and led against them from without; should they be found to be really secure, to what higher degree of improvement they may yet be carried; how far they are together and severally beneficial to the nation, and in what proportion they do, or may be made to contribute to the strength and prosperity of the empire.

"4. Of the present state of our manufactures and maritime trade; whether the extent of our own possessions, our political influence and relationship with other powers, the price of provisions and rate of labour in Great-Britain and in other countries be such, as to secure us a permanent progression in this branch of our national industry.

"5. What proportion that part of the British public employed in manufactures, trade, and unnecessary occupations, bears to those employed in productive labour; and whether the former can be considered as contributing according to their number, as much towards the intrinsic strength and stability of the state as the latter. If a manufacturing and commercial people be not better calculated for offensive than defensive warfare; if so, whether the necessity of a defensive war should not be prevented.

"6. Whether that part of the national force which consists in the patriotic character or public spirit of the nation, be encreasing or on the decline; if found to be diminishing, what are the causes and how they are to be removed."

With the author's observations on the unrivalled importance of Agriculture, we entirely agree. This branch indeed of political economy, the improvement of agriculture, we place at an infinite distance above all others. The vast improvements of which it is susceptible in England are undoubted, and are very well illustrated in this publication. With regard to the plan, proposed by the author for effecting these improvements, we are not so completely satisfied. He recommends a Board of Agriculture on a very enlarged and liberal scale to be sure. We must refer to the publication itself for an account of it. But we may state that we do not approve in all respects of the constitution and powers of this board; and we are quite sure that a board of agriculture, though in some circumstances it might do good, is not the best plan for promoting the interests of agriculture. Give perfect freedom to the commerce in land, as you give it in every thing else; abolish the laws which tend to keep up, contrary to the natural course of things, immense accumulations of it in single hands, and those which expose it to partial, harassing, and invidious taxes; and give no absurd encouragement by your laws to the employment of capital in other and less important occupations, and you will inevitably have a flourishing agriculture, provided freedom is the portion of all your citizens.

We most earnestly recommend that part of the volume which treats of the fisheries to the public, and we would recommend it to the government if we thought that it would have much effect. The treasures of the ocean we consider as next in value to those of the soil. And of all fishing stations upon the face of the earth, this united kingdom is probably the most fortunate. Independent of the riches which might be derived from this employment of labour, and capital, it is recommended in a most remarkable manner by its subserviency to one of the first of national objects, Defence. Fifty thousand able bodied fishermen, who would be wanted for this occupation, would form with their boats a perfect rampart around the empire, which, assisted by our navy, nothing would be able to break through. The author appears fully qualified to offer advice on this subject; having observed attentively the fishery in the North Sea, for upwards of thirty years. He enters considerably into detail, and speaks like a man of sense on a subject which he understands.

Some thoughts are subjoined by way of appendix, on the threatened invasion of this country. The observations are well worth a perusal. But none of them are so new or important as to require to be here quoted. The same thing may be observed of the remarks on the invasion of Hanover. M.

Divine Judgements on Guilty Nations. A Discourse delivered at Newport, in the Isle of Wight, on the late Fast Day. By Robert Aspland. *With a Preface and Notes, by* B. Flower. *Cambridge. Button.*

Men, who from a peculiar warmth of fancy were led to the adoption of speculative opinions, which, in the present state of human nature could not be reduced to practice, received a dreadful specimen, in the French Revolution, of the consequences that must follow from the attempt to render their notions the principles of action. Even the most daring and self-sufficient of these enthusiastic reformers shrunk at the horrors which their doctrines might have occasioned. But, that some men still remain whose minds are so totally deadened to every sense of human calamity, as to exert themselves for the extension of such horrors, is a fact that cannot be controverted. It even appears, from this piece of composition, which the *worthy* author, and his still more *worthy* commentator, Mr. Benjamin Flower, chuse to denominate a Sermon; that in this country, whose soil is of all others the least calculated for the production of such monsters, there are not wanting those who have effrontery to insult the understandings of the British public by the diffusion of their savage notions.—The author of this Sermon appears to have for his object to consider the present troubled state of the world in two points of view:—First, As the punishment of national vices and crimes; Secondly, As the prelude to some signal

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acts of omnipotence, justice, mercy, &c. &c. Upon reading a little further we find that the *vices* and *crimes* of the nation, are the *vices* and *crimes* of the government, and these are classed under four heads: 1st, The crime of *war*; 2dly, The crime of oppression; 3dly, The crime of severe penal laws, and 4thly, The crime of an established religion. The people are also charged with crime, and the crying sin that chiefly calls for divine vengeance with respect to them is, that they do not with sufficient vigour resist the above mentioned crimes of government; or to speak in plainer terms, government itself. What hope of any change for the better can be derived from the prospect of a revolution such as that of France, it is impossible for us to conceive. Had the French revolution been followed by an order of things that should have secured the subject a greater degree of civil and religious liberty than he before enjoyed, there might have been at least a plausible argument in its favour But when we observe, that France has, we had almost said gladly, thrown herself into the power of *one* tyrant, in order to escape the pityless rage of the most terrible of all tyrants, *the mob*, when such is the result of French phrenzy, where is the argument for revolution, especially in such a country as this? Yet for this monster, still reeking with the blood of millions, the author seems to argue, as far as he can do it without subjecting himself to an indictment for high-treason. If our penal statutes are *severe* in some respects, that they are *mild* in others can scarcely be doubted by those who read the following passage, and consider that the author is still entitled to the privileges of a British subject. Speaking of the crimes of governments, "the extraordinary methods" that must be adopted in order to rectify them, "the violent and convulsive throes" that are necessary in order to bring regularity out of confusion, beauty out of chaos, and "the storms" that may be expected before the rising or settled evils can be dissipated, the author proceeds thus: "Many of the inconveniencies and hardships under which society in many parts of the world now labours, are so *interwoven* with its very frame and constitution, that *a temporary dissolution* of social existence is *necessary* to their rectification or removal. The remedy is terrible, but the only alternative lies between *such remedy*, and a disease whose end is destruction. *Humanity* would shrink from these operations of providence, which though *indispensable* are severe; but they are not submitted to its choice; the designs of God, as they are formed in wisdom, will be executed with steadiness. He that sitteth on the throne of universal dominion virtually proclaims in the exercise of his moral government, 'I shake the heavens and the earth also,' before he announces the sublime declaration revealed by the Christian prophet, *behold, I make all things new.*" This passage as it stands connected with the whole scope of this discourse, affords an inference too obvious to be mistaken. But the notes and observations added by a person of the name of Benjamin *Flower*, are if possible more objectionable than the discourse itself. This gentleman appears to affect the very language of the French Revolutionists, and we are told that *resistance* not to the enemy, but to what he pleases to denominate tyranny, *becomes the most sacred of duties.* The general strain of his reasoning, if such it may be called, proves but too plainly, that by the word *tyranny*, he means the constitution as it is established in church and state. He expresses great indignation at the *unanimity* that appears to animate the nation at this momentous crisis, because he thinks the present war unjustly undertaken. But of his sentiments in this particular, his attack upon administration, his hatred of Roman catholics in general, but attachment to those of Ireland, (no doubt, because he supposes that something may be effected by them favourable to his purpose) his view of our policy in both the Indies and other subordinate matters, we shall say nothing. It is not hostility to any set of men or measures, that we reprobate. It signifies nothing to us, whether a man be of Apollos, or Cephas, if he be of Christ. But the author's objections appear to be levelled against all constituted authority. The French Revolution has however been attended with this one important advantage, that it affords men a terrible warning to beware the sophisms of those, who under pretence of consulting their welfare, would entice them to their ruin. Let it not be thought that we mean to inculcate the doctrines of passive and implicit obedience. We know that abuses exist, of which a reform would be desirable, and they will be reformed, unless prevented by such a terrible convulsion as the French revolution, which so materially checked the progress of the European states towards reform political and civil. But revolution instead of procuring reform, has been proved by experience to be the grave of reformation. An apology might be necessary for having wasted so many words upon this performance, which is full of contradictions, and equally contemptible both in matter and stile, were it not well known that such compositions, however silly in themselves, may be productive of pernicious effects to some portion of the community. D.

Hindoo Costume; or, Representations of the Manners, Dresses, Customs, Occupations, &c. &c. of the Hindoos. By ———, of Calcutta. G. & W. Nicol.

This curious work is divided into 12 sections containing various representations of the peculiar manners, habits or dresses of the Hindoos. The first of these sections consists of 66 prints, representing the several Hindoo casts, with the dresses and occupations peculiar to each. From the intermarriages of the four distinct casts, the Bramins, who are the ministers of religion, the Khury's, who are the nobility or soldiers; the Byces, who are the merchants, and the Souders, who form the labourers or lowest cast, many intermediate individuals are produced. Of a variety of these in their proper dresses and employments, representations are given. The second section consists of several prints representing those Hindoos, who are employed in any department in the service of Europeans. These are represented in the actual exercise of their several employments. This is the only section that includes Mahometans. The third section more particularly represents the dresses peculiar to the different casts, and to the people, as they are employed in their different occupations. The fourth section consists of

several prints representing the costume of the Hindoo women in the different casts and stages of their lives, whether maids, wives, or widows. The fifth section comprises a considerable number of prints, forming representations of the bullocks, horses, &c. of the Hindoos, and the different employments in which they are engaged by the people. The sixth section represents more particularly the occupations of the Hindoos of every description. The seventh section contains a variety of prints forming representations of the Fakeers, or mendicant priests engaged in the several forms of their devotions, with appropriate dresses, and in the exercise of the penances which they impose upon themselves. The eighth section represents the pleasure-boats in a great variety of forms, and the several modes in which they are used. The ninth section represents the boats of lading; with the Hindoos in the various acts of loading, unloading, and navigating them. The tenth section comprises several prints, representing Hindoos in the act of smoking, and the various sorts of instruments which they use for that purpose. The eleventh section comprises a great number of prints, representing the different kinds of musical instruments employed by the Hindoos, and the various modes in which they are used. The twelfth and last section contains two-and-twenty prints, representing the different public festivals of the Hindoos.

On the page opposite to every print, a description of the subject is placed, so as to explain it with the greatest precision to the European, who may be ignorant of the peculiar customs of the Hindoos. The whole, considering that it is the work of a native of Hindostan, may be said to be executed in a very superior style. The figures and instruments of the various arts practised by the inhabitants of Hindostan, seem to be faithfully and correctly represented. The colouring is however coarse, but the proportions are well preserved. As a specimen of the progress made by the Hindoos in the Fine Arts, the work is interesting, curious and instructive, though more fit to serve as a subject of reflection and amusement for the philosopher, than as a model for the painter. The whole is comprized in one large folio volume, and forms a sort of regular and complete collection of representations relative to the Hindoos, and their various arts, dresses, ceremonies and occupations. It is therefore one of the most valuable curiosities, that at present can adorn a library, whether public or private. D.

FOREIGN.

Voyage en Island fait par ordre de S. M. Danoise, avec un Atlas, traduit du Danois par Gauthier de Lapeyronie, traducteur des Voyages de Pallas. 3 vols. 8vo.

His Danish majesty, in order that a more minute and particular knowledge might be acquired of Iceland, one of the most interesting parts of his possessions, ordered his Academy of Sciences to cause a survey to be made of that island. The academy entrusted the execution of the King's orders to two gentlemen of science, and the present work is the result of their labours. According to the plan chosen by the authors, the country is divided into quarters, and these again are subdivided into baliages, or districts. The most minute details are given with respect to each of these divisions and subdivisions. Their extent and situation, the nature of the soil in each, the mountains, rivers, valleys, glaciers, volcanoes, lakes, springs, the temperature of the climate, and the variableness of the seasons are described. An account is given of the fossils and minerals of the island, the different sorts of earths which it contains, its plants and their properties, its animals of every kind, insects and conchology, of the ancient and recent natural phenomena, and also of its inhabitants, their genius and conformation, their manners, sciences and arts. In short, every thing that can be interesting for a stranger to know concerning the island, is here described with a minuteness that is sometimes tedious. But the authors wrote in order to give the most exact idea of the island to the Danish government, and for this purpose it was necessary that they should enter upon many minute particulars, which, though they may appear tedious to strangers, must be of the greatest importance for those to know who are more nearly connected with the country described. In a contemporary Review of distinguished *flippancy* the present work is decried on account of its minuteness, and the reviewers observe, that whoever wants to acquire a knowledge of Iceland, ought to read a much shorter work. But certainly, whoever wishes for a particular and complete idea of the island cannot consult a publication that can better answer his purpose than the present. But truly, the minds of these gentlemen were fatigued in perusing a long work consisting of five vols. 8vo. Delicate souls! Pity it is, that the authors did not send from Copenhagen to learn to what lengths they might advance without inconvenience to them. Messrs. Olafsen and Polafsen, however, wrote for the Danish government, and their object was to render their *report* as useful as possible in point of information to that government. This is not the work of a man who views every thing with an eye to the support of a particular theory. It is a faithful narrative of facts, without referring these facts to any particular system, and therefore the reader is in no danger of being imposed upon by visionary representations which are but too frequent. Iceland, both by the variety of natural curiosities which it presents, and by its being the spot where learning found refuge from the persecution which it sustained during the dark ages in the other parts of Europe, has been regarded with interest by all nations. A particular account of it cannot fail therefore to prove generally attractive. Every thing that can be desired to be known with respect to this island by every description of readers, is to be found in these volumes. The work therefore must be valuable to the public in general, but more particularly to the natural historian, on account of the multitude of facts which it contains relative to the science with which he is more particularly conversant. H.

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List of New Publications from February 16, to March 1, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, &c.

A Postliminious Preface to the Historical Review of the State of Ireland. By Francis Plowden, Esq. Containing a Statement of the Author's Communications with the Right Hon. Henry Addington, and some of his Colleagues, upon the Subject of that Work; some Strictures upon the Falsities of The British Critic; and other anonymous Traducers of the Irish Nation; and also some Observations on Lord Redesdale's Letters to the Earl of Fingall. (*) 3*s.*

POLITICS.

Thoughts Recommendatory of a Coalition between the great Parliamentary Leaders. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The object of the author of these *thoughts* is to bring about a coalition between Mr. Pitt, Mr. Fox, and the Grenvilles, for the vigorous prosecution of the present war. He contends that there is no impossibility at all in this, as Mr. Fox has declared that for the safety of the nation he would rather see Mr. Pitt in administration than the present ministry. Mr. Pitt, he observes, would form a sort of bond of union between Mr. Fox and the Grenvilles. Mr. Fox, if left to himself when in administration, would probably immediately commence a negociation. The Grenvilles would be eager to make the restoration of the Bourbons the ground of the war. Mr. Pitt could not accede entirely to either of these plans, and the whole administration would be thus forced to steer a middle course. The author also displays the advantages that would result from an administration so composed with regard to our influence on the Continent, the nations of which have always with eagerness watched the sentiments of Mr. Fox. These *thoughts* are expressed in an easy and agreeable stile. The author is strongly attached to the party of Mr. Pitt, and his language would imply that he is a member of the House of Commons. He seems to feel the awkwardness of the situation to which Mr. Pitt has reduced himself by setting up the present ministry, and this may perhaps be a *latent* reason why he so strongly desires a coalition—one part of which might oppose the ministry without any imputation on their consistency. Whatever may be the motives of any one who wishes for such a coalition, at the present period, he is likely to gain credit for their being just and patriotic, for it is scarcely possible to contemplate our existing situation without a wish for some one at the helm in whom the crew could place a perfect confidence.

The Political Proteus. A View of the Public Character and Conduct of R. B. Sheridan, Esq. 8vo. (*) 7*s.*

Honour or Infamy: A Letter to the Army, Navy, and People of England, on the dread Alternative—Invade, or be Invaded. By Publicola. 1*s.*

The object of Publicola is to prove, that rather than wait till the enemy has invaded us, we ought immediately to invade him. On the one hand he asserts, that if we are to go on repining ingloriously at home, our finances and manufactures cannot endure the burden that may be imposed upon us by a protracted warfare of which none can see the end. On the other hand, were we to invade France, we should be joined by the various nations which are held under her yoke. The expedition to Holland, however, is still fresh in our memories, and we ought at least to be pretty well assured of support on the Continent, before we undertake another. We are therefore disposed to think that the zeal of Publicola out-runs his discretion. His arguments, such as they are however, he is justifiable in laying before the public, and, *valeant quantum valere possint.*

THEOLOGY.

A Charge, delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of London, in the Year 1803, by the Right Rev. Beilby Lord Bishop of that Diocese. (*) 1*s.* 6*d.*

A Sermon preached at Salem Chapel in Leeds, at the Weekly Meeting for Prayer, on Account of the present State of the Nation. By Thos. Langdon. 6*d.*

The object of this Sermon is to display the incomprehensible nature of the Deity, both in his Being and operations. It is distinguished for good sense, moderation, and simplicity, and is therefore well calculated to be generally useful. The mind of the author appears to have been animated by genuine Christianity.

A Check to Infidelity. Affectionately addressed to the Deists of the present Day. By J. Wilkinson.

This pamphlet consists of many of those considerations which have been repeatedly pressed upon the Deists by the friends of Religion. The good intentions of the author are manifest, and we cordially agree in the justness of most of the sentiments which he expresses; but we confess that the arguments adduced by him do not appear to us to be placed in a point of view very likely to attain the desired object.

SCIENCE.

Eversion; or, a Refutation of the present Principles of Mundane Philosophy. Thos. Cormouls, A. M. Editor. 8vo. 7*s.*

This is another attack upon the principles of the Newtonian philosophy. The object of a pamphlet which we noticed in our last Number, was to prove, that Newton knew nothing about navigation, mathematics, astronomy, or common arithmetic; the design of the present is to give the *coup de main* to his ignorance, by proving that he knew nothing at all about gravitation, attraction, or any of the laws and properties of matter. It is needless to enter into any detailed criticism on this notable performance. The nature of the work is shortly this: The author finds that the Newtonian theory does not correspond with matter of fact, according to his experiments; and the reader will easily see the origin of his mistake in not making the suitable allowances for the various minute causes that prevent the practice from corresponding exactly with the theory. The sound is an echo to the sense, for the stile, like the matter, is pompous, ponderous, and obscure. These ephemeral attacks, very harmless to the object against which they are directed, serve at least the purpose of shewing "of what importance a man is to himself."

POETRY.

The Plea for a Private Indulgence of Grief: a Poem. By J**n D****n, D D. Addressed to the Hon. P**l*p B**v**rie, in August, 1774. 1*s.*

The Wiccamical Chaplet: A Selection of Original Poetry; comprising smaller Poems, Serious and Comic Classical Trifles, Sonnets, Inscriptions, and Epitaphs, Songs and Ballads, Mock-Heroics, Epigrams, Fragments, &c. &c.—Edited by George Huddesford. 8vo. 6*s.*

This chaplet consists of several small poems serious and comic, written by gentlemen educated at the seminary of Wykeham. There are also occasional translations from the Greek and Italian. In general, the poems deserve all the praise that can be given to poetic scraps that are con-

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fessedly trifles. The humorous pieces we think the best upon the whole. The author of the *Cape Hunt* in the manner of Chevy Chace, has been very happy. In many instances, however, the sonnets are dull enough, and the verse far from being correct, but the reader may certainly find occasionally something entertaining, if he can bring himself to undergo the labour of searching for it.

NOVELS.

Lobenstein Village. A Novel. By Mrs. Meeke. From the German of Augustus La Fontaine. 4 vols. 12mo. 16*s*.

Honorina, or the Infatuated Child, a Novel. By James Barton, L. M. 2 vols. 12mo. 7*s*.

In fact, to use an expression of which James Barton, L. M. appears to be fond, this novel is so insignificant as to be almost below criticism. It is an improbable story told in a dull manner, and in an affected style. The only striking point in the book, is the astonishing frequency with which the heroine is in danger of being ravished, and the still more amazing methods by which she always escapes. But the truth is, the author wanted to make up a novel, and was indifferent about the sort of matter that it might contain, well knowing that the brains of many of our belles are so completely turned by reading such trash, that no nonsense, however dull, is to them disgusting. They are so eager to devour this sort of food, that they swallow it down whenever it appears, without waiting to examine its nature or quality.

MISCELLANIES.

Translations from the Greek, viz.—Aristotle's Synopsis of the Virtues and Vices, the Similitudes of Demophilus, the Golden Sentences of Democrates, and the Pythagoric Symbols, with the Explanations of Jamblichus. By William Bridgman, F.L.S. To which are added, the Pythagoric Sentences of Demophilus, by Mr. Thomas Taylor. (*) 5*s*.

A Supplement to the Examination of the Critical Reviewers of the Translation of Juvenal. By W. Gifford, Esq. 5*s*.

ORIGINAL POETRY.

Ad Glandem.

O sacra quercu nuper ab Anglicâ
Delapsa Glans, et frugifero sinu
Commissa maternæque terræ;
Pande novas oritura gemmas,
Succosque opimos et pluvii leves
Humoris haustus imbibe, et intimis
Captos medullis per meatus
Mitte avidos vegetasque venas.
Surge, et tenellum tolle solo caput,
Non indecoris orta parentibus;
Notumque majestate truncum
Et patrias imitare vires.
Te mollis imber, ros et amabilis
Ruri perusto, te facilis Noti
Afflatus, alternisque frigus
Deliciis foveantque soles.
Nec turbida Euri flamina, nec gelu
Septentrioni creditum in hospito,
Lugubris aut rubigo, ab ortu
Nube volans, et amica lethi,
Impune crines spemque superbiæ
Stravisse jactet; nec tenerum lepus
Rodat cacumen, aut peresâ
Stirpe cavet sibi vermis antrum.
Me, cum juventus semine conditos
Firmarit artus, me tibi sedulo
Custode, defendet juvenci
Spina frequens caput insolentis.
Nutrita lætâ sic ave, fortior
Protende ramos, desuper ardua
Sublimiori fronde sylvæ
Despiciens, et Atlante major.
Feri corusco vertice sidera:
Regina saltus, gloria patriæ,
Et mercium fæcunda nutrix,
Temne minas Jovis et furorem.
Io! triumphas! apta mari cadis
Matura tandem præda securibus;
Invicta per cædes ab ipso
Ducis opes animumque ferro,
Nunc ultimarum munere gentium
Portus coronans; fulmina nunc vomens,
Terrore costarum recluso,
Et domitas equitans per undas.

CHEM.

Translation of Passages in Tyrtæus.

Mr. Editor,

In the occasional address to the Volunteers, spoken at Covent-Garden theatre, on the night dedicated to the Patriotic Fund, Mr. Boscawen, the author of that address, and, I must add, the very inadequate translator of Horace, alludes to the verses of Tyrtæus, that so animated the Lacedemonians in their battles with the Messenians, as to make them, according to the old story, by that means victorious, "ταυτη ἐπικρατησαντες." This allusion led me to re-peruse the elegies of this poet, and they struck me as not only so generally spirited in themselves, but so particularly adapted to encourage the military spirit now kindled over England, that I have ventured to present the public with the two following translations:

"Ne'er would I praise that man, nor deign to sing,
First in the race, or strongest in the ring;
Not tho' he boast a ponderous Cyclops' force,
Or rival Boreas in his rapid course;
Not tho' Aurora might his form adore,
And Cyprus' king, and Crete's to him be poor;
To him tho' Pelops' birth and power belong,
And soft Adrastus' all persuasive tongue.
Tho' all were his, but godlike valour's boon,—
My Muse is sacred to the brave alone.
Who can look carnage in the face, and go
Against the foremost warriors of the foe.
By Heaven high courage to mankind was lent—
Best attribute of youth, best ornament.
His own alike, his country's good, that man
Fearless who fights, and ever in the van,
Who bids his comrades barter useless breath
For a proud triumph, or still prouder death—
He is my theme, for only he is brave,
Who can himself check war's increasing wave,

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Can turn his enemy to flight, and fall
Belov'd, lamented, deified by all.
His native city, and his native land,
High in renown, by him exalted, stand;
Those who inherit, those who found his name,
Share *his* deserts, and borrow from *his* fame.
He, pierc'd in front with many a gaping wound,
Lies great, and glorious* on the bloody ground;
From every eye he draws one general tear,
And his whole country follows to his bier.
Illustrious youths sigh o'er his early doom,
And late posterity reveres his tomb.
Ne'er shall his memorable virtue die,
Tho' cold as earth, immortal as the sky;
He for his country fought, for her expir'd—
O would all imitate whom all admir'd!

"But, if he sleeps not with the mighty dead,
And living laurels wreath his honour'd head,
By old, by young ador'd, he gently goes
Down a smooth pathway to his long repose!
No wanton hand e'er bids his bosom bleed,
All are too just, or shame restrains the deed;
Unaltering friends still love his hairs of snow,
And rising elders in his presence bow.

"Would ye like him the wondering world engage?
Draw your keen blades, and let the battle rage."

In the original of the next elegy, there is the same easy flow of verse, as in that of the above, and less want of variety in poetical images, whose sameness and scarcity is very observable in Tyrtæus, and I think one evident proof of the real interest he felt in his subject:

"Yes, it *is* sweet in Death's first ranks to fall,
Where our lov'd country's thickening dangers call.
But driven dishonour'd from his happy home,
Foully who flies, in beggary to roam,
His wife, his infants shrieking in his ears,
His sire with shame abash'd, his mother drown'd in tears,
What indignation at his cowardice
Shall flash upon him from all honest eyes!
How shall he stain, for ever stain his blood,
Rich tho' it flow, descended from the good!
How shall he brand with infamy his brow,
Fair tho' it was, 'tis fair no longer now!
An outcast wand'rer thro' a scoffing world,
'Till to an ignominious tomb he's hurl'd.
Known to all future ages by his shame,
A blot eternal in the rolls of fame.

"But let *us* firmly stand, nor ever fly,
Save all we love, or with our country die;
Knit in indissoluble files, a band
Of brothers fighting for our native land.
Ne'er let us see the veteran soldier's arm
Than our's more forward, or his heart more warm;
Let us not leave him in the midst of foes,
Feeble with age to deal unequal blows,
Or in the van lie slain, with blood besmear'd
His wrinkled forehead, and his snowy beard,
Stript of his spoils, thro' many a battle worn,
And gay assum'd that inauspicious morn,
Breathing his soul out bravely at our feet—
Let such a sight our shrinking eyes ne'er meet.

"But oh! be our's, while thus our pulse beats high,
Or gory death, or glorious victory!
Be our's, if not an honourable grave,
Smiles of the fair, and friendship of the brave."

LONDINENSIS.

Chapter Coffee-House.

* I have inserted this (not in the original) feebly imitated from the noble description of Sarpedon lying dead, in the Iliad.—

——— "οὐ μιν ἔτι προφυγόντα νεκυν
Κεισθαι μεγαλήτορα, μεγαλην τε, λαοσσοον ἐοντα,

Epigrams.

When Betham was master of Eton, the boys used continually to annoy him by allusions to his avaricious disposition, in their exercises. Among the many that then appeared the following has survived. The subject given out, was

"Omne ignotum pro magnifico est."

Averse from pamper'd and unruly steeds,
His upon *Hay*, the prudent *Betham* feeds;
Bred in his Stable, in his Paddock born,
What vast ideas they must have of *Corn!*

Lines written by the late Mrs. St. John on the back of a Portrait of Pope.

Your Pen, and Marlbro's Sword are much the same,
He fought, you wrote, for profit more than fame;
His Eagle after Grants, and Pensions flew,
And all your Laurels from Subscriptions grew;
His Friendships too like yours were false and feign'd,
No longer lasting than his ends were gain'd:
Thus then, at once, we both your Deeds rehearse;
Gold *was his God of War, your God of Verse.*

CORRESPONDENCE.

Reply to F. L. S.

MR. EDITOR,

Your Correspondent F. L. S. has rightly noticed the intimate connection between Greek and English, and also rightly traced the origin of it from both languages being derived from one common parent, the ancient Scythian; but while he thus pursued the opinion of Meric, Casaubon, and Junius, he should not have omitted all notice of how ably Ihre had lately sustained the same task in his *Dissertat. de originibus ling. lat. et græc. inter Mæsogothos reperiundis Berlin*, 1763, and his other tracts concerning the Gothic translation of the Scriptures by Ulphilas. However, in his conclusion he has adopted another opinion of Ihre, which I can by no means approve, either in him, or your Correspondent, which is, that "from the Cimbric was descended the Danish, Islandic, Norwegian and Swedish." Now I wish that he had informed us what language he meant by *the Cimbric*; did he mean that spoken by the old Cimbri in Roman story? He could scarcely mean this, as we are ignorant what language it was, no remains of it being preserved;

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neither can we judge from the Roman accounts of that nation, whether it was in either language or manner allied most to a Celtic or Gothic origin. But if by *Cimbric* he means the language of the Welsh, who call themselves *Cymri*, and are supposed to be descended from the antient Cimbri, then there will not be found the least resemblance in language, between the Welsh and the Swedish, Danish, &c. Such a connection is indeed affirmed by Ihre in his proemium to his *Glossar. suio-Gothicum*, but he allows that this opinion was only formed by comparing some Islandic words with others which he found in *Cambricis armoricis Lexicis*; but if he had consulted an intelligent Welshman, he would have found that the Welsh disown many such words as being originally Welsh ones, and consider them as having been only imported into their tongue either in later times from their neighbours in England the Saxons, or else from the Gothic tribes who bordered upon their east side, while they lived in Germany. Of the 20 examples, which he produces, others are not to be found in Welsh, but only in the Armoric dialect, and might be introduced into it from their neighbours the Francic Goths. Others are mentioned as synonimous, which have never the same sense: thus *well* has no connection with *hwyl*, in Welsh the latter means only *order, state, course, condition*, without any implication of a good or bad state, and approaches nearer to the sense of *wheel* than *well*. If all such words be deducted, there will be a very few in Welsh, really similar in sense, to the same words in any Gothic language; and from those few no such conclusions can be drawn, as that of any similitude between Welsh and the dialect of any of the Gothic or Scythian tribes. Formerly indeed an error prevailed of confounding the Celts and Goths, but this is now exploded both in point of manners and language; and F. L. S. ought to be able to produce some better evidence than Ihre has done, before it be revived. However, such a connection is more probable between Welsh and Gothic, than with respect to the language spoken by the Celts in the interior of Gaul, or in Ireland and the north of Scotland, because the antient Cimbri and other Celtic tribes, who had spread on the east side of the Rhine, were nearer neighbours to the Gothic tribes who came from the east, that is, from the north of Asia, and by various intermixtures of tribes through war or voluntary union, the Cimbric language would in course be more corrupted with Gothic words, than the other Celtic tribes farther to the west. But a few similar words in two languages are not sufficient to prove their use formerly of a common language, for in all languages there are some words of a similar sense to be found, and the distinguishing difference arises from a different mode of forming nouns, verbs and syntax, between which there is no similitude in Welsh, compared with the relics of those Gothic tribes as exhibited in Iceland, Norway, Sweden, &c. The two languages of Celtic and Gothic are in all such respects totally distinct, except in a few common names of things: and in this respect the same connection will be found between English and Hebrew; many roots of English words are found existing in Hebrew, yet the languages are totally different; and this is to be only accounted for by the intermixture produced through time by the various conquests and revolutions in nations. The Scythian tribes on the north of Asia were variously intermixed in different ages, with the inhabitants of the interior of Asia, who spoke some dialect of the Chaldee and Hebrew; hence some Chaldee words were transmitted into the Gothic tongue and thence descended to the English. The Greeks again, were chiefly formed out of the Scythian inhabitants of Greece, among whom Cadmus and other orientalists afterwards established colonies, and thus introduced many Chaldee and Syriac words in the Greek, some of which were afterwards transmitted into the Gothic language of their neighbours on the north, and thence again into English. The very same corruption has happened to the Welsh language, although originally quite different from the Scythian tongue; for when the Goths, descendants of the Scythians, pressed westerly upon the Celts of Europe, they from their mutual intercourse learned *words* from each other, and yet their languages in all other respects remained totally distinct. So that there is no truth in the opinion of Ihre, formed only on a few words, that Welsh has any similitude to Gothic, nor in the same opinion now entertained by your correspondent of the *Cimbric* being the parent of Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and Islandic, these latter four being all Gothic languages, very different from the Welsh, descended from a Celtic origin; if however, by Cimbric he means Welsh, and I cannot conceive what else he can mean by that appellation.

H.

Historical Queries.

Mr. Editor,

I should be much obliged to some of your correspondents conversant with modern history, if, by means of your miscellany, they would give me some information respecting a particular point in the civil and military constitution of a small state, on the Adriatic shore; which state, ought, in my opinion, to be better known than it is, in the political world. The republic of Ragusa, with a view of preserving liberty, has, almost from her establishment, constantly been under the protection of some of her powerful neighbours. She generally depended on the kings of Hungary, whilst they were the sovereigns of Dalmatia: as soon as that province was ultimately conquered by the *Venetians*, Ragusa threw herself on their dependance; and in latter times, has subsisted, as it is well-known, not only under the protection of the republic of *Venice*, but even under that of the Grand Signior, and of the king of the two Sicilies. This last power seems to have possessed a greater influence than either of the other two, on the affairs of the Ragusan state; as besides the annual tribute which, in common with them, he has received from it, as a token of fealty, he has enjoyed the additional prerogative of appointing the military commander in its capital. In the year 1783, the government of Ragusa attempted to get rid of this subjection, and actually refused to admit the commander, then appointed by his Sicilian Majesty: that monarch, on the other hand, firmly asserting the dignity of his

crown, and the rights of his predecessors, caused a sequestration to be made of all estates belonging to the Ragusans, in his dominions; and it was owing to this vigorous measure that the councils of the republic reverted to a sense of duty, and ultimately accepted the royal officer sent to their capital. Wishing to elucidate this right historically, and not meeting with any information of the kind, in the Neapolitan writers, I have consulted some of the Venetian and the Turkish historians? In them also I have not found a single word on the subject; although in the two very scarce books—*Luccari's Annals of Ragusa*, and *Father Razzi's* history of Ragusa, I observe many indirect details, which induce me to believe that the right in question, most likely, originated either under the reign of Ferdinand the First, in 1470, or under that of Charles V. in 1533.—I should be happy to have a more positive and accurate information in this respect.

I shall be as much obliged to some other of your correspondents, acquainted with German literature, if, through your Journal, they could answer the following question. In the last edition of professor *Heumann's Conspectus Reipublicæ Literariæ*, published at Hanover, in 1761, I find (page 500) a most curious, interesting, and original anecdote. "*Non est*," says the author, "*prætereundum silentio hunc conspectum reip. lit. a.* 1749, *jussu episcopi Altamurensis, quæ urbs non procul Neapoli jacet, in foro publico combustum esse. Erat in hac urbe excusus, præscripto tamen Basileæ nomine literarum vero figuræ docuerunt librum excusum esse Altamuræ. Jussit omnia exemplaria ad se adferri, et eum qui vel unum secum retineret excommunicavit. Scilicet in meo libro multa reperiebat suæ Religioni contraria. Retulit, hoc mihi Gaudius, eques Neapolitanus, qui tunc adhuc vixit Neapoli, ibique erat D. et Prof. Juris, et inde abjecta Religione Pontificia, Gottingam venit, et nunc professor juris est in Academia Gissensi.*"

During my residence at Naples, I never heard any thing respecting this *Gaudio*, either among lawyers or men of letters; and I have reason to think that his name is utterly unknown in the literary history of his native country. Observing however, that so early as 1749, in a provincial town in the Bœotia of Italy, and when the science of Bibliography was yet in its infancy, he seems to have been sensible of the merit of the excellent and unrivalled work of Heumann; and considering that he felt himself sufficiently learned to repair, as a candidate, to the university of Gottingen, at that time in the zenith of her glory, I am apt to believe that he must really have been a man of great abilities. And as I am aware that in Germany, more than in any other continental country, an accurate necrology is regularly compiled of all distinguished characters, in her several literary corporations, I should be glad to know whether in the university of *Giessen* or in that of *Gottingen*, any memoirs are preserved of the person to whom the present paragraph alludes.

Whilst I trouble your readers with the preceding queries, I am happy in having it in my power to communicate a valuable article of information, on the subject of the history of Naples, which is unnoticed by all modern historians, in my knowledge. In an appendix to the 5th vol. of Du Chesne's collection of ancient French chronicles, containing an abstract of the chronicle of Father Ptolomy of Lucca, and representing the pedigree of King Charles of Anjou, I have accidentally found, I. That Carobert, king of Hungary, by his queen Elizabeth, sister to the then newly crowned king of Poland, had, besides his two sons, Louis and Andrew, both known in the Neapolitan history, a third son of the name of *Stephen*, who was married to the daughter of the duke of Bavaria, and from that marriage had one daughter named Elizabeth. II. That Robert of Anjou, king of Naples, feeling a remorse that he had formerly *usurped that monarchy from his nephew Carobert*, had ordered, some time before his death, that a marriage should be concluded between Louis the eldest son of Carobert, and the princess Mary, second daughter of his own son Charles, duke of Calabria, with a view that the monarchy itself should absolutely revert to the Anjoine branch of Hungary; and that whilst this marriage was on the carpet, the princess Mary, operante quadam domina, quæ erat in societate ipsius, absque consensu Johannæ Reginæ, sororis suæ, contraxit matrimonium cum Carolo Duce Duracii, et repenté una cum matre dicti Ducis recedens de Castro Neapolis, ubi cum prædicta regina sua sorore manebat, et accedens ad domum ipsius ducis, dispensatione super hoc a Domino Clemente Papa VI. obtenta, et per dominum Talayrand Cardinalem Petragoricensem, fratrem matris dicti Ducis procurata, illico matrimonium consumavit: III. That when Louis of Hungary invaded the kingdom of Naples, and ordered Charles, duke of Durazzo to be beheaded, it was not, as historians pretend, tanquam idem dux fuisset conscius mortis Regis Andreæ, sed quia receperat in uxorem supradictam Mariam, anhelans posse ad regnum Siciliæ, ratione suæ uxoris devenire.

AN INQUIRER.

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° VI.

At me non ætas mutabit tota Sibyllæ. Propertius.

Should I another century see,
The same, as now I am, I'd be.

AS all my acquaintances know that I am one of those people, who, according to the common phrase, have nothing to do, they make no scruple in disposing of my time as suits their own convenience and amusement. I am the very person that friends, newly come up from the country, wish to meet; and I have generally the pleasure of shewing the town ten or a dozen times in the season. These repeated excursions to every quarter of the metropolis, often produce me much amusement, not from the novelty of the scenes themselves, but from the different light in which they appear to every new visitor, and the whimsical remarks which they generally draw forth.

A few days ago, a very worthy man, a relation of my father's, who holds a retired vicarage in one of the midland counties, having been brought up to town as a witness on a very important action of trespass; took

this opportunity of renewing his acquaintance with the son of his old friend the rector. As I understood he had never been in London before, I readily offered my services to introduce him to the great city; being moved, perhaps, by a desire to astonish a country relation by my knowledge of the town. As we were walking down Piccadilly, while I described the several noble mansions we passed, and their worthy possessors, he suddenly stopt short, about three hundred yards from Hyde-park corner, and pulling my arm—"I have often, said he earnestly, reflected with wonder, on the eagerness which the mind of man acquires for a favourite pursuit. The approach of our latter end, which extinguishes every other desire, seems even to encrease it; and on this object, we fondly waste the remains of our mortal existence, which, from many warnings, we feel to be on the verge of dissolution. Observe that ancient artist before us, the prime of his days has been spent in pourtraying the human form on the canvass or the marble. Time is now about to put a close to his labours; yet although his knees totter, and his eyes grow dim, and the beauty of woman can no longer excite any glow in his veins, behold he still applieth his glass to his eye, and considereth the polished rounding which nature hath given to the limbs of the damsels." The solemnity of the vicar's face had so much engaged my attention, that he had finished before I looked forward and discovered his venerable artist to be no other than the old *Peer Capricorn*, taking his daily peep at the flowers of the creation.

Future ages, when they view the figure of this distinguished Personage, which will certainly be erected on his tomb by his grateful heirs, may mistake his real character as much as my friend the vicar. My anxiety for the honour of the peerage makes me however unwilling that this brilliant ornament of their rank should not appear in his true colours to posterity; and as the fashion of the age allows me to include any other man's life I chuse in my own biography, I shall set down some particulars which I communicated to the vicar, on our way home, concerning his ancient artist.

Peer Capricorn is the representative of a family which held the very highest place in the military annals of a sister kingdom. While martial glory and a proud sense of honour formed the distinguishing characteristics of a Noble, the ancestors of his Grace were conspicuous above all their peers. When the support of national grandeur, and the patronage of genius, were thought to shed lustre around a title; we find, about a century ago, a chief of this house lulling the civil dissentions of a nation to rest, and adorning his palace with the presence of wit and learning. *Peer Capricorn* has in no degree degenerated from the fame of his ancestors; for it will be found that he equally excells in those things, which in his day, confer distinction on rank.

Whoever were the early instructors of our peer, their chief merit seems to have consisted in allowing him to follow the bent of his own mind; and this soon enabled him to discover the road in which he was destined by nature to excel. On the great theatre of Newmarket we find him rising into early celebrity, as may be seen by looking into any of the public journals from the middle of last century downwards. His name indeed was seldom absent from an article of Sporting Intelligence; and the portraits of his victorious horses are still preserved at Newmarket for the benefit of succeeding ages. I once intended to have inserted here a catalogue of those heroes of the turf; but on reflecting that our young men of fashion were not to be my only readers, I dropped my intention, as it may be possible to find subjects of more interest to others.

Some of those meddling moralists who pretend to find fault with every thing that becomes a man of fashion, have raised a hue and cry against horse-racing, and its brother amusement the gaming-table, as if they were perpetually entailing ruin, misery, and despair, on our noble families. It is the peculiar praise of *Peer Capricorn*, that he exposed the ignorance and folly of these moralizers; for instead of being ruined by these pursuits, he has contrived by their means to double his fortune. The turf he turned to particularly good account; and so great was his success on it for many years, that at length, if at any time he failed in his bets, the voice of malice was apt to whisper that he did not do so without a valuable consideration on the other side. These calumnies, as is usual in such cases, were strengthened by certain other virtues of his character. He well knew that a General could never conduct an army with any certainty of success, unless he understood the temper and habits of the troops under his command; and that in the same manner, it would be impossible for him to direct the affairs of Newmarket without a thorough knowledge of those he had to deal with there. His condescension and humility, while acquiring this knowledge, deserves the loudest applause. Some persons of his rank might have saucily looked upon it as beneath them to associate with jockies, black-legs, and sharpers of every description; and might not have selected, for their chosen companion, their groom; particularly a fellow whose company was avoided as a disgrace even by his brother jockies. Our Peer however knew that such squeamishness is a perpetual bar to improvement and the accomplishment of great designs; and it is said that he often found occasion to profit by the information which he acquired in this society, and which he could have found nowhere else.

Our peer, as I have already observed, if a sovereign among jockies, was a prince of no less fame among gamesters. I might in this line recount many instances, much to his credit, in which he gave very impressive practical lessons to young heirs newly come to their fortune, by stripping them to the last shilling of that wealth which might have hurried them into the wildest dissipation. There are also many curious stories extant of strange and unlooked-for issues he obtained from the dice-box, which ignorant people were apt to ascribe to the *black-art*, or at least something which their shallow understandings could not reconcile with plain-dealing. There is one circumstance from which an idea may be formed of his great success. At certain fashionable resorts in Pall-Mall and St. James's-street, it is said that a man who be-

comes an adventurer there, at his entrance deposits on the table his *reputation* in one heap, and certain valuable commodities in another. The former heap, (which indeed is often not very considerable at the commencement,) continues, from that moment, gradually to waste away by a sort of insensible evaporation. In proportion as the heap of valuables increases, that of *reputation* diminishes with equal rapidity; till the latter, it is said, frequently disappears altogether. The great increase of the old peer Capricorn's heap of valuables at these resorts is well known; but on his retiring from them, it is hinted that after some fruitless researches over the green cloth to discover the remains of the other heap, he was at last obliged to commit any farther pursuit to the waiters.

But although our Peer employed himself in these fashionable occupations, as a nobleman ought to be employed, yet it was to a very different pursuit, often indeed connected with the former, that his great and ruling passion turned. It had been usual with poets, and whimsical people in the country a century ago, to talk of the high deference which men owe to the female sex, on account of the endearments they give to our youth, and the comforts they confer on our age. But women are now considered, particularly among the higher ranks, in their true light; pretty, gay, fluttering things, that serve to fill up all parties, to take off the listlessness of leisure hours, and afford conversation where there is no match or bet of consequence pending. Our young men of fashion also find here, much for the good of the state at large, a field for the exercise of their talents; for women, even in their present state of estimation, have still *one* antique quality to be triumphed over, and a youth of spirit may from such victories acquire considerable laurels. The fair sex are, on their part, not insensible to the improvement that has taken place in their condition; and their estimation and favour for a man rise in proportion to the number of his triumphs over the last of their antient prejudices.

It was to be expected that peer Capricorn, with his usual laudable ambition, would endeavour to distinguish himself in pursuits that opened such a scope for gentlemanlike talents: but he appears to have been carried towards them by a certain invincible propensity, which evidently shewed that they were to form the great object of his future exertions. There is one very remarkable peculiarity in his predilection for the sex, which shews the uncommon range of his ambition in this respect. Although he was accounted a great connoisseur in fine forms, yet for his own private purposes, he seemed to pay little regard to such particulars. It was not that a woman was brown or fair, tall or short, plump or slender, black-eyed or blue-eyed; it was not that she was high-born or low-born, a duchess or a dairy-maid, that attracted his attentions; if she was a woman, and not yet walking the purlieus of Marybone, it was enough for her to come within the range of his spy-glass, in order to excite his desire of pursuit. It is well known that in some of the darker streets leading into May-Fair, he excited little less apprehension among the women than the Hammersmith ghost; and even the most robust dairy women were in former years afraid to venture within Hyde-park-corner before day-break in the exercise of their calling.

In such a very general range of adventures, it is not possible that our hero should not at times have encountered certain perplexities. Of the feeling expressions of gratitude bestowed on his ears by the country damsels, in return for his proffers of a handsome suit of ribbands, many curious particulars are well known at all his country residences. His once having occupied by stratagem the butler's corner in the cook-maid's bed, is said to have brought disagreeable consequences to that part to which the angry foot is usually applied. He is reported also to have found himself one night in an aukward predicament on discovering accidentally, by the assistance of a lamp, that he had been, for several hours in the dark corner of a street, paying his adorations and urging the acceptance of his offerings at a shrine of three-score. The old lady, who was a humourist, received the vows, and pocketed the offerings, engaging with a curtsey at parting to meet her swain again wherever he thought proper.

It might be imagined that such a general inclination for the sex must have been inconsistent with any particular partialities. But this was far from being the case. A woman was indeed always a woman with him; but if she was anywise distinguished by the public voice of fame, it gave a proportionable spur to his desires. There were few reigning toasts at our races and watering places, during the latter half of the last century, who could not boast of many very urgent attentions from peer Capricorn. Even at the present day, when his range is chiefly confined to the metropolis, and his pursuits are somewhat less ardent, there is nothing of female attraction that escapes his minute investigation. There has been no instance for many years of a female who has put the capstone to her fame at Doctor's Commons, without having her claims to this distinction minutely scrutinized and reported upon by our peer. It is not many weeks since he was known to wait in his vis-à-vis a whole day at the door of the Bow-street office, to have a passing glimpse of a fair one who had made a great effort to acquire notoriety by a *faux pas*. When a foreign signora, noted for her talent in singing or the ballet, was anxiously expected, he has been known to have expresses stationed at the opera-house to bring away intelligence every half hour of what might have been farther heard of her arrival.

Nothing, however, acquired our hero more reputation in this way, than the invincible perseverance with which he pursued an enterprise that he had once resolved upon; for it was a maxim with him, when once engaged, never to relinquish the contest till his victory was complete. The following instance will suffice to place his merits in this respect in due estimation with posterity. Sally Ascot, the daughter of a poor tradesman, had by her uncommon beauty become the universal object of admiration in the village where she resided. This village, which lay at no great distance from London, had also the good fortune to be situated near one of our fashionable race-grounds; and it was at one of the races that Sally first attracted the regards of peer Capricorn. Another noted peer of

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the turf saw this village beauty at the same time, and immediately commenced a pursuit; but after trying every thing that art or money could effect, he gave up the affair as hopeless. But peer Capricorn had resolved to succeed, and was not so to be baffled; yet after expending all the lures which a long experience suggested, he had still made no progress in his design. Sally had given her heart to a young labourer in the same village; and, strange to relate! she preferred the prospect of sharing the fruits of his humble industry, to the brilliant fortune of being kept by a nobleman. The importunities of his Grace, however, at length became so harrassing, that she was obliged to complain to her father; and fearing that he might employ force to accomplish his designs, she resolved to confine herself for some time at home. Our peer was not a little astonished at all this: he could not see why in any reason a tradesman's daughter should pretend to an obstinate virtue which he so seldom had to encounter among her superiors. It struck him, however, that although a tradesman's daughter might have become extremely wrong-headed, there was still no reason to suppose that the tradesman himself had lost his wits. In this he was right: the purse which the daughter had rejected, the father looked upon as a thing that might not every day fall in his way. The old man was prevailed upon to tempt his daughter out one evening from her confinement to a neighbouring field, where she was instantly hurried into a carriage that awaited her; and our hero had now the inexpressible delight of contemplating her varying features and attitudes while she was forced into his arms in agonies that baffle description.

It may easily be conceived that a conqueror of such enterprise must have acquired much celebrity in all quarters by his exploits. Advertisements have even appeared in the public papers to record his merits as a seducer. It is not to be supposed that one who met with such general reception among the fair sex, should ever think of entangling himself in the trammels of wedlock. This indeed is to be lamented, as no heir will be left of his honours and virtues, to adorn the peerage of the next age. Indeed I cannot learn that his blood is likely to be perpetuated either directly or indirectly, except that he and a brother sportsman are said to have contrived between them to produce one female scyon.

I have already observed the remarkable union which our Peer maintained between prudence and pleasure. He never gave up a pursuit in which he once engaged; yet he never paid more for attaining his object than the very lowest farthing. The same spirit was conspicuous in his other transactions. He well knew, that without brilliancy in public entertainments, no one could long expect to hold a distinguished place in the fashionable world. In these therefore he was profuse; and such as find leisure to turn over a file of the Morning Post may convince themselves that few things in fashion or out of season were wanting at the public dinners of peer Capricorn. He was at the same time, however, well aware, that while he kept this appearance to the world, he might manage his private economy just as he thought proper; and it is well known that the fervent apostrophes of the butler and the house-keeper have been repeatedly called forth, by his attempts to save the cheese-parings and candle-ends, in a less metaphorical sense, than these terms have been employed by some of our great statesmen.

It might be expected that a personage so distinguished among the circles of fashion, should set the example of clearing away those old prejudices which fetter society. Among many instances of his atchievements in this respect, there is one that has tended greatly to encrease his fame. The ancient residences of their forefathers, where their family honours had taken root and flourished, were objects of veneration to the nobility even down to our age. Our Peer had too much understanding not to perceive that attachments to tottering walls, mouldering oaks, and elms crowned with rooks' nests, were the extreme of folly. In order therefore, to trample on such prejudices, and having no peculiar deference for the feelings of his heir of entail, he caused the avenues and groves of his ancient and romantic family-seat to be sold to the highest bidder, and thus suddenly converted them into a more solid source of enjoyment in the hands of his banker.

There is nothing which gives us a higher idea of peer Capricorn's energy of mind, than that his enterprises, all of which required such quickness of sight, have for many years been carried on by the help of one eye. How he came to lose the other is indeed a matter of dispute. Some alledge that it was lost in those contests which have proved fatal to so many right honourable eyes and noses. Others affirm that it was lost in the service of his country; for happening, in an affray at a disputed election, to encounter an enraged butcher of the opposite party, who was armed with an immense flesh-hook; the son of slaughter made no ceremony of twitching out his eye on the point of his weapon, and bearing off the trophy in triumph.

The concluding period of the old peer Capricorn's years, is such as might have been expected from the tenor of his preceding adventures. The lustre which his conduct has shed on the higher circles, naturally attract around him a crowd of the gay and the noble; and his entertainments are graced with whatever is most eminent in beauty or fashion. He cannot indeed now play his part on the turf; nor enjoy the cheering sound of the dice-box. Still however, he clings to his favourite pursuit; and, like what the ancients tell us of departed ghosts, he continues to hover around those pleasures which he can no longer enjoy, through the fear of instant dissolution. His vis-à-vis is indeed never missed, on a fine day, in the haunts of beauty; and when it stops short, and the glass is pulled down, one may conclude that there is something worth being seen within the reach of his spy-glass.

Such are a few particulars of the noted peer Capricorn. I know there is something suspicious in my writing a great man's history during his own lifetime, particularly in the very complimentary style I have employed. It may be surmised that I have not done this without a valuable consideration; yet I must, in my own behalf, affirm on the word of a

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Nabob, that I have neither hitherto received, nor hereafter expect any other reward for my services, than the honour of incorporating the memoirs of such an illustrious character, with the account of my own life and transactions.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Correspondence between the Right Honourable Lord Redesdale, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, and the Right Honourable the Earl of Fingall, &c. &c. From the 28th of August to the 26th of September 1803. *To which is added the Narrative of the Rev. P. O'Neil, a Parish Priest of the county of Cork, referred to in the preceding Correspondence.*

THIS correspondence came before us in the shape of a pamphlet. But as it was less the subject of criticism as a composition, than of remark as a political transaction, we promised our readers, when we announced it in the fortnight's list of new publications, to make our observations upon it, at a future period, in a different part of the Journal from that allotted to the review of books. We consider the transaction as one which will form a curious passage in the page of Irish history; and which therefore deserves to be well marked at the moment of its occurrence. For this reason, as well as for the information of that part of our readers into whose hands a copy of the correspondence may not come, we shall here give a pretty full account of the contents of the pamphlet, the title page of which we have placed at the head of this article.

Among other persons of great fortune and distinction in Ireland, educated in the Roman Catholic religion, and steadily attached to it, is the Earl of Fingall. During the distractions which for the last twelve years have prevailed in Ireland, this nobleman has distinguished himself not only as a loyal and peaceable subject, but as an active defender of government; an exemplary opponent of all turbulent and revolutionary projects; and highly useful by the extensive influence he possessed among the Catholics in restraining the irritation which they were disposed to feel, from the denial of objects they so earnestly desired, and to which they conceived themselves to be fully entitled. He had enjoyed all along, in a high degree, the confidence of government; and had received some strong, and public marks of its approbation and gratitude.

Some time about the beginning of August last, he applied to government to be appointed Justice of the Peace for the county of Meath. From the regularity and order with which the daily business of society is conducted in this country, it is not very easy to conceive the importance of the duties of the magistrate who has the charge of that part of the police, which in Ireland is included in the office of Justice of the peace. In a turbulent and disorderly country, on the perfect or imperfect state of the local police depends the whole of the immense difference which exists between the happiness of order and security, and the horrors of rebellion and civil war. That the local police of Ireland has continued up to this day, in the most depraved and corrupted state, is fully known to every person in the least degree acquainted with that unhappy country; nor is it doubted by any one who has attended to the subject with a mind capable of rightly estimating the circumstances of the case, but that the greater part, if not the whole of the lamentable scenes lately exhibited there, are justly to be ascribed to this single cause. Had the police in Ireland, had but the offices of justices of the peace, and of sheriffs, to mention no other particulars, been exercised in Ireland with the same vigilance, discretion and justice, as they are in England, (and they are not always exercised even there so well as they ought to be) the risings and tumults which produced so much mischief might have been checked in the bud. In many cases these offices are committed to the landed gentry, men of honourable and amiable qualities, in private life, but whose time is spent in hunting and convivial pleasures, and who want those habits and that information, which qualify a man for being a magistrate. In nine instances out of ten, they have never thought of any transactions in their neighbourhood till they are brought formally before them, after they have become too alarming to be any longer overlooked. And then they decide hastily, upon partial information; and the cause of the evil, instead of being removed, is often in this manner encreased. The violence too of the prejudices by which the different classes of Irishmen are actuated against one another is extreme; and the persons whom we have described are in general pretty strongly under this unfortunate influence. The treatment accordingly which persons, the objects of these prejudices, meet with, is in general not according to rigid delicacy. But this is by far the most favourable part of the case. In a majority of instances, gentlemen of property and character are not to be found, or are not chosen to fill the office of police magistrates; and then most frequently persons of a very mean description indeed are found in the situation. Ignorance, negligence, partiality, and every mean and selfish purpose and passion, are then seen corrupting and disgracing the administration of the country; the people are abused, and their minds alienated; and every pestilent humour, and the seeds of the most fatal disorders, are planted and fostered to maturity in the body politic.

We have some very strong testimonies to adduce in confirmation of what we have here represented. It is not one description only of persons in Ireland, but all descriptions; it is not those only who have opposed the measures of government in that country, but those too who have been employed in carrying them on, who have seen and acknowledged this to be the great cause of the evils which have afflicted, impoverished, and distracted that unhappy island. In a report made to the house of commons in Ireland by the late Earl of Clare, on the state of insurgency in 1787, that zealous minister said that, "upon the best consideration which he had been able to give the subject, two circumstances had chiefly contributed to spread the commotions. The first was, that under the present existing law, the kind of combination

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which pervaded the province of Munster, was deemed but a misdemeanour; a bailable offence, and no magistrate could refuse to take bail for it. *The second* was, *the insufficiency and criminal neglect* of magistrates throughout the great county of Cork. There was scarcely a magistrate that would act. If the magistrates had in general acted as some few had done, *the commotions would* not *have existed for a month.*" This is strong language; but not an atom stronger than the case justified. It is the county of Cork only which is here specified by the minister. It was in the county of Cork only that the spirit of insurgency had as yet chiefly appeared. But the county of Cork is a very fair specimen of the rest of the kingdom, and was not more unfortunate in its magistracy than most other parts of it. We shall give the opinion of another gentleman of some authority, on the same subject and uttered on the same occasion. Mr. Curran said, "that the supineness of the magistrates, and the low state of the commissions of the peace throughout the kingdom was an evil of the greatest magnitude, and demanded to be speedily rectified. A system of vile jobbing was one of the misfortunes of that country. It extended even to commissions of the peace. How else could the report of the four and twenty commissions of the peace, sent down to the county of Clare in one post, be accounted for? Even the appointment of sheriffs was notoriously in the hands of government; and through jobbing, sheriffs themselves could not be trusted. Two sheriffs ran away last year with executions in their pockets. And the late high-sheriff of the county of Dublin had absconded." For an instance of the atrocious misconduct of sheriffs, we refer to the last Number of the Journal, p. 210, in the review of Plowden's Ireland. We hope and believe that instances so dreadful as this were not common, but instances of very great misconduct were very common. And the office of justice of the peace, as being less high than that of sheriff was still oftener inadequately filled, and its duties neglected, or its power abused.

In such a state of things we regard the offer of the earl of Fingall to discharge the duties of a justice of the peace, as an instance of true and high patriotism. Unquestionably, in that capacity, in a county where no individual could have half so much authority, and where a well contrived, and well administered police is a thing of the utmost consequence, he was qualified to do the greatest good. It is with no other view that he could possibly desire the office. It was rendering himself and his high character responsible for the good behaviour of the province, and it was undertaking by choice a very laborious and difficult task, from which he could derive no advantage but what was common to every good man who desires the peace and prosperity of his country.

In this light the request and character of Lord Fingall appear very justly to have been regarded by the government of Ireland. The Lord Chancellor replied to his request by a letter which is the first of the correspondence here alluded to, and begins with these words: "My Lord, according to your Lordship's request, I have signed, with great pleasure, a warrant for your lordship's appointment to be justice of the peace for the county of Meath. At this moment, my lord, it is peculiarly important that every person intrusted specially with the preservation of the public peace, should know and conscientiously pursue the strict line of his duty. Your lordship's distinguished loyalty, at all times, and on all occasions, leaves me no room to doubt that you will exert yourself to the best of your judgement for this important purpose."

As Lord Fingall, however, is a Catholic, the Lord Chancellor thought that some peculiar instruction was necessary for him, when about to assume the office of a magistrate. He stated, that persons who had not themselves been guilty of rebellion, had yet been in possession of information concerning rebellious designs which they had not disclosed. He said, that the persons to whom he thus alluded were principally Catholics. And he proceeded to persuade Lord Fingall that it was part of the duty of allegiance, strongly obligatory, to impart all such information to government; and his lordship's duty as a magistrate, and a person of high authority among the Catholics to inculcate the propriety and necessity of such conduct.

The great theological point, which since has given occasion to so many remarks, comes next to be commented upon by the learned lord. It is the influence which different religious theories have upon the opinions of the duty of allegiance. He tells Lord Fingall that he is persuaded his lordship knows that the Christian religion makes the duty of allegiance altogether independent of any coincidence or discordance in theological tenets; and inculcates loyalty to the prince who lawfully reigns, even though he should hold a religion different from any form whatever of Christianity; as appears from the great example of the apostles themselves, who commanded obedience even to heathen governors. But he expresses his opinion, and professes great sorrow when he does so, that such is not the idea of many persons of the Roman Catholic persuasion, and that such is not the doctrine inculcated even by some high in the priesthood. His lordship then explains the ground, on which he has formed this opinion; and that is; the doctrine of the Roman catholic church, that itself, and no other denomination of persons professing the religion of the bible, is the church of Christ. From this it follows, that all who are not Roman Catholics are in rebellion against Christ; by consequence, the King of Great Britain himself. With this doctrine Lord Redesdale represents the opinion of allegiance being due to him as altogether incompatible. "It cannot be expected," he says, "that vulgar men should think themselves bound by any tie of allegiance to a king thus represented to them as himself guilty of a breach of what is termed a higher duty of allegiance."—"I can consider no man (whatever his profession of loyalty may be) as truly the loyal subject of a king, whom he thus holds up as the object of disaffection, nay of hatred, because that king holds a different opinion in matters of religion from those who adhere to the See of Rome."

In the answer of Lord Fingall, he expressly disavows the incompatibility alledged by Lord Redesdale, between allegiance to the King, and any doctrines of the Roman Catholic religion. "I must beg leave,"

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says he, "to state to your lordship what I have always found to be the conduct and faith of the Catholic. I need not speak of his attachment to and respect for an oath. Were he less delicate, why should he labour under any exclusion now; or have suffered many years of penal restriction? I must say, I never heard a Catholic wish for the overthrow of the Protestant establishment, and setting up in its place one of his own religion.—The Catholic is ready at this moment to sacrifice his life, his property, every thing dear to him in support of the present constitution, in defence of that beloved sovereign, to whom your lordship does not seem to think we look up with that veneration and gratitude which I assure you we do."

"The Catholic wishes no other family on the throne, no other constitution; but certainly wishes to be admitted, whenever it shall be deemed expedient, to a full share in the benefits and blessings of that happy constitution under which we live—a participation which, I trust, we have, and shall continue to prove ourselves not undeserving of."

He then proceeds to state in very strong terms indeed, that the allegiance supposed, by the Catholics, due to the See of Rome, is not, in the most trying cases, inconsistent with the most devoted allegiance to a sovereign of a different religious persuasion. "Catholic loyalty and allegiance," says he, "I need not tell your lordship, would oblige every one of that persuasion to resist or repel even the Head of the See of Rome, were it possible to suppose that the Usurper who now disturbs the peace of the world would send him here with his invading army. My lord, the doctrine of allegiance is perfectly understood, and unceasingly preached by the Catholic clergy."

With regard to the duties of loyalty, Lord Fingall declares, he understands them to be such as they are laid down in the letter of the Lord Chancellor. "I have always been taught," says he, "that that man was a traitor and violated his allegiance, who concealed any plot against the state;—to this opinion all those who profess the same religious faith that I do are bound by the most solemn pledge. I am sorry any have deviated from it; they cannot be, I am persuaded, those remarkable for their religious and good conduct!"

Several other letters passed between the noble characters on the same subject. Of those sent by Lord Redesdale the main purport is to enforce the opinion, stated in the first; that the doctrine of the Roman Catholic church, which maintains the Roman Catholic religion to be the only true religion, and all others false and heretical, is inconsistent with the duty of allegiance to a Protestant prince. "As long," says his lordship, "as this doctrine, (which, with all humility I say it, appears to me to be repugnant to every idea of christian charity, taught by the scriptures) shall be preached to congregations; and until those congregations shall be taught that Protestants of every description, although in their opinion in error on certain points, are to be considered as members of the church of Christ, and their brethren in the faith of Christ, it seems to me, that there can be no hope that exhortations to loyalty and obedience to a Protestant government will have any effect. Men of education and property may feel loyalty and obedience to such a government to be proper, or at least expedient; but preaching to men of the lower orders, and especially those without property, loyalty and obedience, under such circumstances, cannot be sincere."

In his last letter Lord Fingall expresses his sorrow "at not having been fortunate enough to satisfy his lordship's mind, as to the objections he made to the Catholic religion;"—and expressly states that the religious doctrine of him and his brethren, "preaches charity and brotherly love to all mankind, without distinction of religion; true and sincere allegiance to our good king; inviolable attachment to the constitution and our country; from an honest and conscientious conviction that such is the duty of a good subject and a Catholic, *be the religion of the monarch what it may.*"

What possible end Lord Redesdale could propose to serve by starting this discussion it is difficult to conceive. Had the Catholics been requiring an extension of privileges, and had the government been refusing them, it might have been proper to urge any circumstances, either in their principles or practice, which seemed to render them unworthy of such favours. But no such thing was proposed. Lord Fingall had been appointed to a very inferior and troublesome office, which it was understood he would discharge with great advantage to the state; and this moment is chosen to tell him that his religion is a very bad one, and exposes every man who professes it, to the well-founded suspicion of being a bad subject, and utterly incapable of becoming a good one.

With regard to the allegation, we are of opinion that Lord Fingall is in the right; and Lord Redesdale absolutely and entirely wrong. We believe that the Roman Catholic religion, as it is at present understood and professed, in every part of Europe, with the exception perhaps of Spain alone, (and if it is not yet brought to such a pitch of improvement in that country, there is every reason to think it will soon be so,) is perfectly consistent with the most sincere allegiance to a Protestant prince. Who can be ignorant enough not to know that the dissemination and advancement of knowledge in Europe, so great and illustrious, has produced happy effects on the Roman Catholic religion, as it has on every thing else? How often, in various parts of Europe, have the sincere professors, and even priests of that religion, published the most liberal and enlarged opinions both with respect to religion and government? Is it not too well known to be disputed, that all the offensive and dangerous points of the Catholic creed have been explained away by the Romish See itself; and that the harmless interpretation is that which is honestly and conscientiously acted upon by every sincere Catholic? There is a multitude of other objections of an old stamp, which Lord Redesdale might with equal propriety have brought against the Catholic religion. How often have the Catholics been reproached with the tenet that no faith is to be kept with heretics? or that heretics ought to be extirpated, even by murder and assassination? Why did not Lord Redesdale

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produce these important accusations? They are just as much a part of the Roman Catholic religion, as the tenet that allegiance is not due to any sovereign who yields not submission to the Romish See; and if possible they are still more inconsistent with the duties of a member of society. In the days of ignorance and bigotry, when religious passions were a species of madness; when the passions of other sects were hardly less violent and intolerant, than those of the Catholics, when John Calvin roasted Servitus, and his successors burnt a poor madman, Anthony, these doctrines were held and acted upon by the Roman Catholics. And at that time, poor old women in this country were seized, tortured till they confessed that they were witches, and then burned. We are now ashamed of these transactions. So are the Catholics of the barbarities which have been perpetrated in the name of their religion. And no Protestant now is afraid of evil from a Catholic, because he is a heretic. In no country in Europe does the Catholic wish to injure the Protestant, or bring him by force to embrace his religion. If by a species of vanity, which is by no means peculiar to the Romish sect of religion, he thinks himself only the Christian, and all the votaries of any other creed, not christians he makes not this the ground of any difference with regard to the common transactions and duties of society. He refuses not to buy and sell with a protestant, and to perform his contracts. But this at one period he would have done. Lord Redesdale lays infinitely too much stress upon the exclusive doctrine of the Catholics. If he had been thoroughly acquainted with the history of religion, he would have known that there are not a great many denominations of religionists who do not claim the same distinction; that there is something not unlike it claimed even for the church of England. Almost all sects indeed now profess a tenderness for the consciences of other sects; and disclaim any desire to interfere with their liberty of conscience. But a great many of them are fully persuaded that they are the only true worshippers of God, and that salvation is only to be expected in their way.

It will not do to take the speculative dogmas of the most celebrated theories of christianity, and push them very closely to their practical consequences. The established churches of England and Scotland are the two most respectable religious communities on the face of the earth, but there are some of the doctrines belonging to both, which will not bear a very rigid scrutiny, either with regard to their truth or moral effect. But this evil tendency is explained away, even by those who adhere to the doctrine; and by many the doctrine is held a blemish in a system, which however they approve upon the whole. From an imperfect form of religion all the advantage undoubtedly is not derived, which might be from a perfect one; but it is very seldom indeed that any theory of religion does positive harm.

Old parts of a religious creed are often like old parts of a code of laws. Many of them may be bad, as our statutes about burning witches; and many others equally pernicious. They have never been formally repealed. But the improved spirit of the times has removed us far from the absurdity of acting upon them. They are still our laws. But they are laws in desuetude. So it is with many parts of the religious creeds of all sects of long standing. The Roman Catholic sect, more attached to form than any other, has tenets, which the stiffness of its manners has not allowed it formally to recant, but these tenets have fallen into oblivion. And though we do not consider the Roman Catholic form of christianity as affording the same assistance to the moral culture of the human mind, which is afforded by some other forms of christianity, and should rejoice to hear that multitudes were gained over from it, we are well assured, there is nothing taught or believed at this moment by the great body of Catholics over Europe, which ought to lay them under any political disqualifications whatever, in this or in any country.

To add force to his conclusions respecting the doctrines of the Catholic religion, Lord Redesdale in several parts of his letters alluded to the conduct of the Catholics in Ireland, and in his last letter started a charge, which has produced a great many words. "I am assured," says he, "from very high, and very respectable authority, that (at least in one district) the priests who were instrumental in saving the lives of the loyalists in the late rebellion, are universally discountenanced by their superior; and that a priest proved to have been guilty of sanctioning the murderers in 1798, transported to Botany Bay, and since pardoned by the mercy of government, has been brought back in triumph by the same superior, to what in defiance of the law, he calls HIS *parish*, and there placed as a martyr, in a manner the most insulting to the feelings of the Protestants, to the justice of the country, and to that government, to whose lenity he owes his redemption from the punishment due to his crimes." It is singular that every thing alluded to in this weighty charge of Lord Redesdale appears directly contrary to what he has represented it. That superior whom he mentions, instead of discountenancing the priests who were instrumental in saving the lives of the loyalists in the late rebellion, selected for his vicar-general, (the highest situation in his power to bestow) a clergyman who, in the year 1798, had been instrumental in saving the life of a respectable gentleman, by giving him timely notice that it was threatened; and the priest whom he is reproached for having re-instated in his parish, instead of having been found guilty of sanctioning the murderers in 1798, was found to be perfectly innocent of every crime, after he had been scourged nearly to death without trial; but before the order of Marquis Cornwallis for his release reached him, the vessel in which he was embarked for Botany Bay had sailed. He returned, not pardoned by the mercy of government, but recalled by the justice of Lord Hardwicke, convinced of his innocence. And he was, upon his earnest request, and even remonstrance, allowed by his superior to resume the charge of his parish, which he had never forfeited, not with any triumph, but in the most modest and humble manner possible, with no insult to the feelings of the Protestants, unless it insult their feelings to see injustice repaired, and innocence protected; with no insult to the justice of the

country, unless making amends for the errors it had committed be to insult its justice; and not to the insult but praise of that government, not to whose lenity he owed his redemption from the punishment due to his crimes, but to whose justice he owed redemption from a most cruel sentence, to which though perfectly innocent he had been condemned.

The priest to whom allusion is here made, has since his return drawn up a statement of his case, addressed to the nobility and gentry of the county of Cork, which has been published since the correspondence of Lord Redesdale, under the title of, The humble remonstrance of the Rev. Peter O'Neil, R. C. Parish priest of Ballymacoda. It is intended to remove the prejudices which he conceived existed against him in the county. It states the proofs of his innocence, and the particulars of his sufferings; and is expressed much in the stile of christian moderation, and the forgiveness of injuries. He fell, it appears, under suspicion of being a United Irishman, which at the turbulent period to which his story relates, was considered as equivalent to every crime. He was arrested, and brought into Youghal, " where," says he, " without any previous trial, I was confined in a loathsome *receptacle of the barrack*, called the Black Hole, rendered still more offensive, by the stench of the common necessary adjoining it. In that dungeon I remained from Friday until Monday, when I was conducted to the Ball-alley to receive my punishment. No trial had yet intervened, nor ever after. I was stripped and tied up; six soldiers stood forth for this operation; some of them right-handed, some left-handed men, two at a time, (as I judge from the quickness of the lashes) and relieved at intervals, until I had received two hundred and seventy-five lashes so vigorously and so deeply inflicted, that my back and the points of my shoulders were quite bared of the flesh.

" At that moment, a letter was handed to the officer presiding, written, I understand, in my favour, by the late Hon. Capt. O'Brien, of Rostellan. It happily interrupted my punishment. But I had not hitherto shaken the triangle; a display of feeling which it seems was eagerly expected from me. To accelerate that spectacle, a *wire-cat* was introduced, armed with scraps of tin or lead. (I judge from the effect, and from the description given me.) Whatever were its appendages, I cannot easily forget the power of it. In defiance of shame, my waistband was cut, for the finishing strokes of this lacerating instrument. The very first lash, as it renewed all my pangs, and shot convulsive agony through my entire frame, made me shake the triangle indeed. A second infliction of it penetrated my loins, and tore them excruciatingly: the third maintained the tremulous exhibition long enough—the spectators were satisfied."

" A certain subaltern, declaring that he had power to act as he pleased by me, took me (naked and bleeding as I was) into a small room in a corner of the Ball-alley, and sternly told me, that if I would not now make an avowal of guilt, I should be brought out to receive a repetition of my punishment, and afterwards be shot. He repeated that menace the same evening in the jail, and still more forcibly the day following. I answered I would suffer any death rather than acknowledge a crime whereof I was not guilty. The same officer on another occasion drew his sword; threatened that I should be forthwith led out again, flogged as before, shot, hanged, my head cut off to be exposed upon the jail top, and my body thrown into the river."

After some other violent proceedings, he was removed on board a transport ship in Cork harbour. By a friend in Dublin his case was laid before Marquis Cornwallis, who immediately conveyed his commands to have him removed from on board the ship, to be confined till further orders, but not to be treated with harshness or severity. Before, however, the orders reached Cork the vessel had sailed, carrying Mr. O'Neil among other prisoners to Botany Bay. On the passage out a mutiny arose among the convicts. They took advantage of the moment when the captain was fumigating the ship, set upon him, and tied him. Mr. O'Neil was chiefly instrumental in quelling this mutiny, and restoring the captain to his authority. In the mean time, the friend who had represented his case to Lord Cornwallis, renewed his representation to Lord Hardwicke, " whose firmness," says the exile, " tempered by that clemency which distinguished his illustrious predecessor was not to be warped by party opposition. An injured subject in the very Antipodes was alike within the range of his power and attention. He listened with patience; he examined with impartiality; he decided with justice. An order from him hath set me free."

How rash in a man whose opinion must carry with it such weight, as that of the Lord Chancellor, to allude to a person whose story is such as has been here told, and to represent him as guilty of sanctioning murderers and rebels (we do not very well understand the phrase), transported as an undoubted criminal to Botany-bay, pardoned by the mercy of government, and redeemed from the punishment due to his crimes!

How hard that the restoration of this man to his parish, should be brought as a charge against the whole Catholic body? or against the individual who had the power to restore him, an individual distinguished for the exertions he has made to serve government and to encourage loyalty among the people under his care? Mr. O'Neil's narrative of the manner in which he obtained his restoration, is the best commentary on the conduct of Lord Redesdale.

" At my return to Ireland I waited upon my Ordinary, Dr. Coppinger; I represented to him the many hardships I had undergone; I referred him to the several proofs of my innocence, which had passed through his own hands, and which were now officially authenticated, by my *warranted* return to my native country. I reminded him, that, as I had a regular collation of my parish, and could not forfeit it by the unfounded charges alleged against me, nor by my subsequent misfortunes, I could not in justice be deprived of it, nor opposed by him in resuming my functions in that parish. He suggested, in answer, that the strong prejudices, which still seemed to prevail against me, rendered it in his mind imprudent, not to say unsafe, for me to return thither. Yet,

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when I remarked to him that the sending me to any other quarter, beside the injustice of such a step, would in a great degree reflect a censure upon me; that it would be an extreme of severity, while I was acquitted in the eyes of the government, and by the act of Lord Hardwicke, that he, my Ordinary, and as I hoped my friend, should seem, in this way, to asperse me; he yielded to my remonstrance: I again took charge of my parish, where, with the assistance of God, I shall persevere in the most strenuous endeavours to maintain peace, industry, loyalty and good order, among my parishioners. A circumstance occurred upon the present occasion, very trivial in itself, but which, as it gave rise to a most injurious misrepresentation, I feel myself bound to notice. Six or seven of Dr. Coppinger's Clergy had been engaged to dine with him on the following day: he was pleased to ask me to join them; which, having done, I was since, in addition to my other crosses, extremely mortified to learn, that this plain private repast was magnified into a most *sumptuous banquet*, given in honour of Mr. O'Neil's return. This glaring misstatement, which of itself would not have affected my Ordinary, has been the cause of much uneasiness since: as seemingly connected with an intimation from a respectable character in Dublin, informing him that a personage in that metropolis, of high rank, and great power, misled by this false intelligence, had complained that Dr. Coppinger restored me to my parish, as a *Martyr, in triumph; with insult to the offended justice of the laws, &c. &c.*"

Political History, Foreign and Domestic.
From March 1, to 16.

The usual accounts from France of formidable military and naval preparations for the invasion and destruction of England, have been changed for others of a different description. A conspiracy has been discovered for destroying the life, or at least the power of the First Consul, for overturning the present government, and for erecting another in its stead. On the 17th of February a report was made by the Grand Judge to the government. The plot, he said, had been hatched by England; and the chief agents were Moreau, Pichegru, and Georges. It had been discovered that a reconciliation had been effected between Moreau and Pichegru, in the year 1802, by the documents found in the possession of an agent then arrested at Calais, at the moment he was returning a second time from England. The matter was passed over in silence; and government, says the reporter, was disposed to consider the retirement of Moreau from public affairs, his suspicious connections, and imprudent language, as the effect of peevishness and discontent. Events however rapidly succeeded each other. Lajollais, the friend and confidant of Pichegru went privately from Paris to London, returned to Paris, carried to Pichegru the ideas of Moreau, carried back to Moreau the ideas and designs of Pichegru. In the mean time the instruments of Georges were preparing, even in Paris, every thing necessary for the execution of their common designs. At a place between Dieppe and Treport, remote from inspection, persons were secretly landed from English ships, where men were provided to receive them, and conduct them during the night from one station to another, till they reached Paris; and at Paris lurking places were procured for them in houses hired before hand, where they had confidants to protect them. A first, a second, and a third landing were effected. A fourth was expected, but disappointed by contrary winds. Georges and Pichegru arrived in Paris, where they lodged in the same house. An interview took place between them and Moreau; a second and third followed, and were held even in the house of Moreau. The presence of Georges and Pichegru in Paris, and these conferences with Moreau, the Judge said, were confirmed by incontestible and numerous proofs. Lajollais and Moreau have been thrown into the Temple. His brother and secretary were likewise arrested, but have since been released. After a vigilant search, Pichegru too has been apprehended. But it is not yet known that Georges has been found. Addresses, almost without number, from public bodies, and individuals of all descriptions, have been presented on this occasion to the First Consul, congratulating him on his escape, expressing the greatest admiration of his person, and hatred towards all his enemies, particularly the English.

Letters from Turkey received at Vienna, state that the number of rebels in Romelia is increasing every day; they are better armed and disciplined than was at first imagined. The manner in which they execute their enterprises raises suspicions of men acquainted with the military art being at their head; and they have beaten successively several detachments of troops sent against them. Their head-quarters are in the middle of the mountains of Romelia, where they have a camp, resembling a city. The revolt, which three months ago was said to be extinguished, was only it appears weakly suppressed. It is even affirmed that its influence is much more extensive than it was formerly. Though Paswan Oglou has for some time kept himself quiet, it is believed, that he is well acquainted with these insurrections, and that he has emissaries in different places to foment disorder, and direct the disaffected.

The Petersburg Court Gazette of the 15th January contains a proclamation for raising eight new battalions, seven of which are to be in the service of the interior, and one for field service.

The government of Sweden has permitted the importation into that kingdom of the wines of Hungary, which hitherto has been prohibited. The duties are regulated according to those on the wines of France and Portugal.

On the 20th of Dec. last, Governor Claiborne, who had been invested by the President of the United States with the powers of Governor General and Intendant of Louisiana, conformably to a vote of the American Congress, took possession of that Colony in the name of the United States, and issued a proclamation to the inhabitants, assuring them of protection in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property and religion, and confirming all their laws and municipal regulations.

The public mind in England has been held in a state of considerable suspense and agitation on account of the indisposition of the King, which however has

not proved so serious as was at first apprehended; and he is now happily near a state of complete recovery. A considerable part of the business in parliament has related to the illness of the King, and the measures which would be necessary to be adopted, should that illness prove lasting. The ministers were repeatedly urged for very explicit information respecting the state of his Majesty's health, and gave such answers as intimated that he would soon be in a condition to resume the exercise of his royal functions. A great deal of conversation, rather than discussion, has taken place on the Volunteer bill; and at the different readings various clauses, regulating a number of inferior points have been added. Some very interesting discussion has taken place in both houses on the Irish Bank Restriction bill; and a committee of the house of commons has been formed to inquire into the state of the circulation in Ireland, both in specie and in paper, and into the cause of the present high rate of exchange against that country.

Accounts from India represent the war which we are carrying on with the Mahrattas to be successful; but the state of Ceylon to be very disastrous. Our forces in the island are reduced to a mere handful, and every where surrounded by their enemies who are in great force.

Some time ago Mr. Falcon, the English Consul at Algiers, was dismissed by the Dey; the reasons of which are not publicly known. Lord Nelson has in consequence proceeded to Algiers, and insisted on his re-instatement; and at the same time required that all the Maltese who had lately been taken by the Dey's cruisers should be given up as British subjects. Captain Keats, by order of Lord Nelson, waited upon the Dey, who after a long interview, in which he behaved with great violence, positively refused to grant either of Lord Nelson's requests. Captain Keats was again sent on shore to wait on the Dey, while Lord Nelson with the fleet was in sight of the town; but the Dey refused to see him, and Lord Nelson returned to the blockade of Toulon, having published a notice in the Gibraltar Chronicle, cautioning all ships to beware how they approach the coast of Algiers, or allow themselves to be boarded by the Algerine cruisers.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

The Rev. *Josiah Pratt* has circulated proposals for publishing, in ten volumes 8vo. the *Whole Works, Expository, Devotional, Practical, Polemical* and *Miscellaneous*, now first collected, *of Bishop Hall*, with an elegant portrait. A new Life of the Bishop will be given, and a complete Index to the whole. One volume will be published quarterly, price 7s. 6d. in boards, to be paid for on delivery, which price will be raised to 9s. when the work is completed. The first volume will be put to the press as soon as a competent number of names is obtained.

Mr. Robert Bisset is engaged on a novel, whose title promises much—*Modern Literature*, in three volumes.

Mr. Gell is employed on a topographical description of the Plain and Site of Troy, together with such parts of the Coast of Phrygia Minor, as have been objects of criticism.

Mr. Beatson at length has added three additional volumes to his excellent Naval and Military Memoirs of Great Britain, which will now come down to the conclusion of the American war in 1783.

Mr. Walter Scott, editor of *the Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border*, is about to publish a poetical romance, called, *The Lay of the Minstrel.*

We are informed that Mr. Porson has prepared for the press, two others of the Plays of Euripides, the Hippolytus Coronatus and Alcestes. He is also superintending an edition of Herodotus, in seven volumes, 12mo. now printing in Edinburgh.

The Rev. Mr. Elmsley has the care of a new edition of Thucydides, which is also printing at Edinburgh.

It is reported from Stockholm, that the first part of the Works of Gustavus III. is printed. It is not however to be published, it is said, till the second part, which is now in the press, be ready.

The French, at present, talk a great deal about public instruction. A minister of state—Fourcroy the chemist, is appointed to superintend it. He has lately procured a collection to be made under his inspection of the laws and edicts by which it is regulated; also, a list containing the names of all the establishments, and individuals who belong to this department of the public administration; and this is published under the title of *Annuaire de l'instruction publique.*

A new seminary was lately projected in Russia, for the education of the teachers of schools, and was opened on the 15th of January with great solemnity.

Fulgoni, has published in Rome—"*Relazione di un Viaggio ad Ostia*, &c. (Account of a Journey to Ostia, and Pliny's villa, named Laurentinum, made by Counsellor Charles Fea, President of the Antiquities at Rome, and of the Museum in the Capitol.) This learned antiquarian, who has been very deservedly raised to the station, once so respectably filled by *Winkelmann* and *Visconti*, gives in the volume now before us an interesting account of the exertions which are making in the vicinity of Ostia, by command of Pius VII. to recover some valuable antiques in the room of those, of which Rome has been robbed by the PLUNDERER IN CHIEF of Europe, and of the success which has hitherto attended those exertions. Mr. Fea found on his way from Rome to Ostia, several ruins of the ancient *Via Ostiensis*, which he enumerates, and various lapidary inscriptions, one of which in verses he discovered on the tomb of a rich debauchee of Tralles, in Asia Minor, who was buried there, after having spent a large fortune at Rome, and in the baths of Bajæ. The walls and ruins of ancient Ostia are far more considerable than we imagined, and seem to indicate, that the place was laid waste in the sixth century, during the invasion of the Goths, and not by the Saracens. Our author also notices several paintings *al fresco*, fine columns of *Marmo Cipollino*, &c. which were dug out of the ground in 1782. One hundred galley-slaves are employed for that purpose, who, in addition to their usual wages, receive rewards in proportion to the value of what they discover.

Vieweg, in Brunswick, has published a very interesting account—"*Of the present State of Midwifery in Paris*, &c. *by* C. R. W. Wiedemann, *M. D.* In addition to a correct statement of the actual state of the obstetric art in Paris, the author has given a succinct, yet impartial narrative of the professional merits and writings of the living professors of that important art, among whom he deservedly assigns the first rank to *Dubois*, and the last to *Sacombe*, whose extravagant opinions, and ridiculous quackeries, he depicts in strong yet true colours.

Suard, one of the few surviving members of the late *Académie Françoise*, translator of Robertson's history of

Charles V. editor of the first year's number of the *Journal étranger* and *Gazette littéraire*, and at present member and perpetual secretary of the class of the French language and literature of the National Institute of France, has edited "*Mélanges de Littérature*," 8 vols. 8vo. A considerable part of the interesting compositions, contained in this instructive miscellany, are written by the editor, but the rest no less valuable than the former, are the productions of the late *Abbé Arnaud*, of the late counsellor of state *Devaines*, of M. *Malouet* and others. *Malouet's* labours deserve the utmost attention. On the honourable line of conduct, which Malouet pursued in the Constituent Assembly, the editor passes a high, yet just encomium, when he says, that Malouet there preserved "*une raison si forte et si eclairée, une ame si sage et si courageuse, au milieu des tempêtes d'une révolution qui a égaré tant d'esprits naturellement bons, et souillé tant de noms jusqu' alors sans tache.*"

Mr. *Benjamin Bergman*, who has spent three years among the Kalmucs, in order to acquire a thorough knowledge of the country they inhabit, their manners, customs, productions, &c. has lately returned to Riga from his interesting travels, and is now engaged in arranging and preparing for the press the materials which he has collected on his journey. His work will be published in 5 vols. 8vo, under the title—"*Mongolian papers collected in the country of the Kalmucs.*"

Citizen *Caraffe* of Paris, a celebrated engraver, known for his beautiful views of Egypt and Syria, and for his large collection of fine engravings, explanatory of the manners and customs of those countries, is arrived at Petersburgh in company with two young Frenchmen, with whom he intends to travel in Russia, with a view of collecting materials for his proposed "*Voyage pittoresque.*"

A French citizen of the name of *Picard*, lately arrived at Petersburgh, has published proposals for delivering lectures on the art of composing analytical critiques of literary compositions *with elegance* and *taste.*

M. von Kotzebue, the celebrated German dramatist, experienced during his late residence in Paris, the most distinguished reception. "M. *de Kotzebue*," said the "*Journal des dames et des modes*," *est en ce moment le litterateur le plus fêté, et dans un dejeuner, un diner, une soirée à la mode, il est indispensable d'avoir M. de Kotzebue.*" The "*Société des observateurs de l'homme*," whose president is the celebrated *Fourcroy*, admitted him as a member, on account of his being, as the diploma says, "*Une des prémiers observateurs de l'homme*, and when he was presented to Madame Bonaparte, she declared, that she was at a loss for words to express the exquisite satisfaction she felt on seeing the man, to whom she was indebted for the sweetest tears she ever wept!

Citizen *Palisot Beauvois*, a celebrated French naturalist, who in the year 1786, accompanied Captain *Landolphe* on a voyage to the kingdom of *Benin* in Africa, has prepared for the press an account of this voyage, and a description of Benin, in a geographical, statistical, political, and moral point of view, which is to be published without delay.

SCIENTIFIC.

It is known to the students of Natural History that bones of a particular species of animal are often found in the quarries of Gypsum, in the neighbourhood of Paris. A skeleton was lately discovered in a block of this substance, and submitted by the directors of the museum of natural history to the examination of M. Cuvier, who had taken great pains in joining the separate bones which had been picked up before, with a view to form an entire skeleton. It contained a part of the lower jaw-bone, one of the upper and one of the under grinders, the vertebræ of the neck, of the back, and of the loins, the ribs, the scapula, the humerus, the two bones of the fore-arm, a part of the thigh bone, and a part of the leg, but the head, and the feet were wanting. However, as the head and the feet had been found in other blocks before, the parts found in this have been sufficient to complete the knowledge of the species, and are the more valuable as it is difficult to find them united in an order so near the life.

It is one of the eleven species already ascertained by M. Cuvier from the bones discovered in the Gypsum quarries, of which no individual has been found alive on the actual surface of the globe, either by naturalists or travellers. Its size is above that of a fox, and under that of the sheep. It appears from the block lately found, that it had at least sixteen ribs. All the species of the genus to which it belongs, and which M. Cuvier has named Palæotherium, (a particular account of them is to be found in the annals of the museum of natural history,) had, as this species likewise has, grinders resembling considerably those of the rhinoceros, with canine and incisory teeth more resembling those of other animals.

With a view to obtain a complete collection of the bones of this animal, forming so curious a document for the history of this globe, the Directors of the museum of natural history have invited all proprietors of gypsum quarries, and all persons who reside in the neighbourhood, to preserve and send to them all stones which contain any bones in an entire state.

M. Lebrun has invented a new method of preparing hemp and flax, by which he gives these raw materials an appearance perfectly new, and highly advantageous, and obtains from them a kind of cotton and silk thread. He begins with the tow the moment it leaves the hands of the cultivator and communicates to it either the soft and adhesive nature of cotton or a brilliancy resembling that of silk. This preparation for every purpose of utility and taste is superior to imported cotton, as it easily assumes and retains any colour of which it may be dyed, and by the labour of a few individuals, a thousand pounds of tow may be converted into cotton in 24 hours. A second preparation gives the tow all the fineness and brilliancy of texture, that has hitherto been peculiar to silk. This silky appearance cannot be destroyed by the action of leys. In order to expose it to the severest test, several samples were boiled in potash, but the brilliancy remained perfectly unchanged. This discovery may be productive of advantages and consequences, the extent of which cannot easily be calculated.

A premature death having deprived the Fine Arts of one of their most zealous votaries, Jean Baptiste Piranesi, his sons Francis and Pierre Piranesi, are preparing for the press the rich materials which he collected for a work to be entitled, The Antiquities of *Magna Græcia* (now the kingdom of Naples.) The whole of this interesting work will form six volumes complete, of which the first will comprehend the description and antiquities of the city of *Pompeia*. A passion for new discoveries, and an indefatigable ardour in their pursuit, induced J. B. Piranesi often to visit those celebrated places which contained any remains of antiquity. Accompanied by his eldest son in these excursions, he conveyed to him the most excellent and correct sketches, together with observations dictated by a knowledge of the arts, by taste and sound criticism. The different fabrics found in the ruins of Pompeia, have been described and represented with the utmost exactness, such as the temples, theatres, amphitheatres, baths, houses, shops, &c. &c. As to the engraving of the designs, this will be executed by Francis Piranesi, with an attention worthy of their object, and the whole will form one of the most valuable works that have yet appeared upon the same subject.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

History of the Progress and present State of Animal Chemistry. By. W. B. Johnson, *M. B. 3 vols. 8vo. Johnson.*

OF all departments of physical science, Chemistry has of late years been the most industriously cultivated. The labours and discoveries of Priestley, Lavoisier, and Black, presented to the chemist a new field of investigation, and created and diffused a spirit of inquiry that still continues to exert its energies. But all departments of chemical science have not been cultivated with equal success. In some, difficulties have occurred and obstacles presented themselves to repress the ardour of inquiry and retard the progress of knowledge, which it may yet require ages of laborious investigation to solve or surmount. The chemistry of animal nature is a department of this kind. It has received much less elucidation from the labours of the chemist than the vegetable and mineral kingdoms. Perhaps it is not in the chemist's power ever to explain it in the same degree. Much, however, has been done. In France Fourcroy, Parmentier, Degeux, and in this country Hewson, Hunter, Hatchett, and a number of other experimentalists have explored and extended the boundaries of animal chemistry. The parts and substances of which animal bodies are composed, have been subjected to the most rigorous analysis and traced to their constituent principles. The functions of the various organs by which the different secretions are formed, the waste of the body repaired, or the necessary evacuations effected, have also been made the subject of chemical investigation. The processes of respiration, digestion, animalization, and perspiration, as well as many of the properties of animal substances are now in a great measure understood, and the utility of the science is proved by its successful application to medicine and the arts. But as its limits are to be extended only by a knowledge of what has been already done, there seemed to be wanting a compilation of facts and observations exhibiting to the chemical student the discoveries of his predecessors more systematically arranged and on a larger scale than had been hitherto attempted. This want Mr. Johnson saw, and kindly undertook the task of compilation. The attempt is indeed a laudable one. It is to be wished that the same compliment were also due to the order of arrangement and the materials arranged.

The parts of animal bodies, or the substances of which they are composed, admit, perhaps with equal propriety, of several different modes of classification. They do not, however, like a collection of proverbs, admit of any mode of classification whatever. The arrangement and distribution of parts should be clear and distinct, and should seem to arise naturally out of the subject. "The parts and matters" of animal bodies are arranged by Mr. Johnson under eleven general heads or divisions; fluids, solids, hard parts, external parts, oils, acids, poisons, aromatics, colouring matter, concretions, excrements. If Mr. J. had been a judge of scientific arrangement, he would not have have fancied that this classification surpasses in systematic accuracy any thing of the kind that has been hitherto attempted. The arrangements of Fourcroy and Dr. Thomson are certainly much more systematic than this. Upon what principles of systematic accuracy are substances which constitute the parts of animal bodies, as the blood, the muscles, the bones, and substances which may be obtained from these parts by chemical decomposition, as oils, acids, &c. confounded and jumbled together in one general arrangement? As these substances are distinct in their nature so ought they to have been distinguished in their classification. But if it were even proper to connect them, the arrangement is objectionable on another account. The nine last divisions are included in the two first. The hard parts, the external parts, the oils, the acids, &c. must be allowed to be either solids or fluids. They form, therefore, with no propriety separate classes in this arrangement. But the most palpable absurdity of all is the division of hard parts immediately following that of solids, as if the hard parts were not themselves solids. What would Mr. J. think of a geographer who should divide the island of Great Britain into Britain and North Britain? Yet this division is as truly philosophical and as accurately systematic as a classification of animal substances arranging in separate divisions the solids and the hard parts. If the general division had been into fluids and solids, the solids might have been afterwards sub-divided into soft parts and hard parts, but as it is, the distinction is obviously absurd.

The work consists of three volumes octavo, the first, comprising the fluids, solids, hard parts, and external parts.

The second—Oils, acids, poisons, aromatics, colouring matter, concretions, excrements, and a chapter on component parts of animal substances, with an appendix on oviparous quadrupeds, serpents, insects, worms.

The third—Life and death; or what other writers have with more propriety called, animal functions and putrefaction.

Even in this arrangement there is something to blame. The chapter on component parts ought to have preceded rather than followed the analysis of the parts of animals. The component parts are said to be albumen, gelatine, fibrine, and osseous matter. But the greater part of these terms have been introduced in the former part of the work without explanation. The chapter then is certainly in the wrong

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place, unless it be meant that the reader is to begin at the end of the book, and read backwards as witches say their prayers.

To these objections Mr. J's. general division of the subject seems liable. The sub-divisions are in several instances liable to similar objections. Under the division of fluids the egg is placed first in order—because as it would appear, "it is in the egg that we must look for the commencement of vital organization." This can be true only with regard to such animals as are produced from eggs, and even in them how is the egg itself formed? From the blood no doubt. Perhaps it would have been better therefore to consider the blood as the source of vital organization, and to have given to it the first place in the arrangement, which from its superior importance in the animal economy it seems to demand. The other substances comprehended in this division are blood, milk, gastric juice, and the process of digestion, bile, saliva, tears, nasal mucus, pus, synovia, sperma virile, humor à vesicatorio, humor hydropis, liquor amnii. But the propriety of introducing the process of digestion into this part of the work, admits of some doubt. Would it not have been more properly arranged along with the other animal functions of respiration, animalization, &c. which Mr. J. includes under the division, Life. As it is arranged at present it is a digression which might have been avoided. The promiscuous arrangement of pus, humor à vesicatorio, and humor hydropis among the other substances included in this section, seems also liable to objection. They do not necessarily and essentially belong to animal fluids, but are the consequence of accident or disease. They ought then to have occupied a sub-division by themselves.

Under the division of solids, the process of tanning and the art of making glue and isinglass are introduced, perhaps also improperly. Chemistry, as applied to the arts, is something so very different from the analysis of animal substances, that there seems to be good reason for keeping them entirely separate.

This is the general plan of arrangement adopted by Mr. Johnson, which was to surpass every other attempt that hitherto has been made. There is yet room for a few remarks on the materials and observations which he has collected, and the arrangement which he has given to them. It was the object of Mr. J. to present to the chemical student an extensive mass of materials. A mass he has indeed presented, but unfortunately it is a mass of confusion.

In giving the chemical history of any particular substance it seems a good and obvious rule, First, to give a short account or description of that substance as it exists already formed in nature, or may be obtained by some simple process, and then to trace, in the order of discovery, the gradual developement of its nature and properties. But plain and obvious as this rule is, Mr. J. seems not to have been aware of it, or if he was, he has however contrived to puzzle and perplex his reader by a variety of deviations from it. It will be sufficient to trace Mr. J's manner of treating his subject in one or two instances. The remarks will apply with but a little variation to most of the rest In treating of the blood, for example, its nature and properties are first described without any regard to the order of time in which they were discovered. Then follows its history, and in the detail of experiments there is of necessity a great deal of idle and tedious repetition. There is even too much of the historical part. It is not necessary to give all the experiments of all the chemists that have written on any particular subject, but such only as tend to demonstrate some new property, or to throw some additional light on the subject. Nor is it necessary to detail the theories and speculations even of ingenious men on subjects that are not strictly chemical. Such are the microscopic observations on the red particles of the blood, by Lewenhoek, Father della Torre, Hewson, Cavallo, and Dr. Wells's optical theory, concerning the causes of its colour. Still less is it necessary to detail, at full length, experiments conducted upon principles that are now exploded or abandoned, except in as far as they have led to the discovery of some new chemical fact. Such are a variety of experiments in support of the phlogistic system, by Priestley, and particularly by Ker, the author of a Dictionary of Chemistry, and Mr J's great oracle. But it seems to have been Mr. J's. object to give to the public a work in three volumes at least; which with the help of a copious index, and a great deal of extraneous matter he has indeed accomplished. On some subjects he affects to be very profound, and is in reality very ridiculous. He tells us very gravely, "that milk was undoubtedly used very early as an aliment, and that cream from its soon appearing on the surface, must have been early observed." Certainly it did not require much ingenuity to discover the utility of milk as an aliment, any more than it did to invent eating and drinking, as the example must have been given at a very early period by the young of all animals of the mammalia class. "Butter-milk differs from other milk only in being deprived of its butyracious matter." This is certainly very true!

Mr. J. does not aspire to any thing beyond the character of a compiler, and seldom troubles the reader with any theoretical conjectures of his own. He does so however at least in one instance. He is of opinion that the bile is merely an excrement, and that the liver in the abdomen, like the lungs in the thorax, performs also an excrementitious operation, depriving the blood that passes through it of some of its noxious parts. This opinion though offered by Mr. J. as his own conjecture, is certainly an old one. It will be sufficient therefore to reply to it with old objections. If the function of the liver is merely excrementitious, why is it situated in the upper regions of the intestines? Why has the excreted matter to take yet a long and circuitous passage before it is evacuated from the body, where it is often the cause of the most dangerous diseases, by being again absorbed into the system? This is not analogous to that simplicity of operation observed in other parts of the animal economy But though Mr. J. believes the bile to be excrementitious, he yet allows that it may have some action on the food or intestines in digestion. This concession therefore destroys his conjecture.

The division of acids is treated with too much minuteness of detail, because the reader must be supposed to have already some knowledge of these sub-

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stances. For although the work may be elementary with regard to animal chemistry, it is not elementary with regard to chemistry in general; and acids are treated of in all elementary books. The history of the phosphoric acid in particular, is liable to this objection. It occupies at least 150 pages, and yet Mr. J. seems not to be decided in his own mind, whether it belongs to the class of animal acids or not.

The chapter on colouring matter is perhaps the most confused and perplexed in the whole work, owing chiefly to an unsuccessful attempt to give a condensed view of Delaval's theory of light, which is to overturn the theory of Newton, but which Mr. J. from his obscure and unintelligible account of it, disarms of all its force. The general want of method in the execution of this work is the more to be regretted, as now and then there is something like method to be met with. The section on Tyrian purple, in this very chapter, exhibits a specimen of methodical arrangement which had it been found in the other departments of the work, would have given the book a value that must have ensured its reputation.

The chapter on component parts is closed with a comparison between animal and vegetable substances. But vegetable substances are not at all treated of in the work. Where then is the propriety of the comparison?

In the division entitled *Life*, there is a section on the vital principle. But this is not necessarily included, and is therefore improperly introduced in a history of animal chemistry. There is no proof that the vital principle is influenced by chemical laws or affinities.

Mr. Johnson's style is as faulty as his arrangement. This will be sufficiently evident from the following examples; The absurd—"exposed to humid air the buff of blood is converted into a kind of *puriform* matter of so *disgusting an odour* as to be difficult to support." The slovenly—"ass's milk *difficultly coagulates spontaneously*." The vulgar—"the elaboratories of chemistry, where animal substances have been analyzed, often *give occasion of observing* the aroma" of ambergris. The nonsensical—"colour depends upon the proportion of the component parts of bodies, more than upon the particular FORM *or shade* of those ultimate parts." What is the shade but colour?

Mr. J. is perpetually sinning against the laws of nomenclature, especially in the use of the term phlogiston and its derivations, to which he seems to be somewhat partial. As the term is now exploded from modern nomenclature, as well as the doctrine from modern chemistry, it ought never to be used, except in relating the opinions and experiments of those who have been the advocates of the system. In the use of one term however, Mr. J. is extremely correct. He uses the term azot-gas instead of azotic gas, which must be allowed to be strictly conformable to the principles of chemical nomenclature, so that if there is much to blame, there is also something to commend. It cannot however be said, that Mr. J. has succeeded in his undertaking. If his book is meant for the instruction of the young chemist it contains too much of detail; if for the adept, not indeed too much; but, owing to the injudicious selection of materials and confused distribution of parts, the experienced chemist will prefer the originals. K.

Indian Recreations; consisting chiefly of Strictures on the Domestic and Rural Economy of the Hindoos and Mahommedans. By the Rev. William Tennant, *L.L.D. lately one of his Majesty's Chaplains in India. 2 vols. 8vo. Longman and Rees.*

Indian Literature, from the interesting view which it presents of a state of society and manners so different from our own, has been lately cultivated with no less ardour than success; and Europe, as well as India itself, has experienced the benefits resulting from the labours of the philosopher and historian on this subject. But to most nations of Europe, and more particularly to Great Britain, an acquaintance with the concerns of India is of the greatest importance in a political point of view. Amongst the nations of the East, we find the most faithful pictures of ancient manners, and more especially amongst the Hindoos, whose attachment to their old religion and the customs of their fathers can scarcely be overcome even in the most trifling instances. The author of the work now under consideration resided several years in India, and the progress of the army, to which he was attached at that period, presented to his examination a vast extent of country in a line of march of more than three thousand miles. His professional character also gave him an opportunity of making excursions in different directions, and of the information which these volumes contain, the far greater part, we are informed, is the result of personal observation, or of inquiries made on the spot. The author also consulted many officers of the Company's troops in India, whose cultivated minds had enabled them to turn to the best account the means of information which had been afforded them by long experience. Several natives, too, distinguished by their rank and respectability of character, as well as by their extensive knowledge, readily supplied our author with all the information in their power, and explained those points that appeared doubtful or obscure. With such opportunities of acquiring a sufficient knowledge of his subject, it was to be expected that his topics should be various, and his observations, correct. In these expectations his readers will not be disappointed. Many, perhaps, will be of opinion that the work would be more valuable had the author thought proper to arrange his materials more methodically, and exhaust his information on one subject, before he entered upon another. But by throwing his strictures together in a loose manner, it was his intention to add to the attractions of curious fact and interesting observation the charms of variety, rightly judging that instruction is seldom more intensely pursued than when she is found in company with amusement. The book, however, is formed into two grand divisions, the first volume containing the domestic economy of the Hindoos, and Mussulmans in India; and the second, the rural economy of the former people. The subject is opened by many pertinent observations on the progress of the Hindoos in civilization, and the singular stability of their manners. The inhabi-

tants of this part of Asia appear to have very early attained that degree of perfection in the arts which is necessary for the purposes of life, but the nature of their political and religious institutions almost precluded the possibility of further improvement by their own exertions. Hence the remarkable coincidence that is found in the manners and customs of the Hindoos at this day, with those of their ancestors two thousand years ago, as described by Arrian, Pliny, and Strabo. The Indian arts, however, such as they are, supplied, from the remotest times, the materials of commerce to the different divisions of the globe. Often subdued by foreign arms, they were always so peaceable and patient under suffering, that the conquerors found it their interest to preserve rather than extirpate them. Little variation was therefore made in the state of Hindoo industry and learning from the successive invasions which the country experienced. These conquests, however, subjected the inoffensive people to continual massacre and oppression, to which the Hindoos submitted almost without a murmur; for the institution of the Casts, and the doctrine of transmigration had taught the greater part of them to consider misery as their lot. But the conquests of the English have at last enabled this harmless people to enjoy the fruits of their industry. They find themselves protected by the laws without any distinction made between themselves and their conquerors. It is not therefore surprising that the Hindoos in the British settlements should begin to feel like men, and assume that air of equality towards the Europeans, which a sense of security both in person and property, and of the impartiality of the laws, naturally inspires.

In treating of the domestic economy of the Hindoos, the author's attention is directed to the Mahommedan conquests in India. Amidst all the lofty boasts of Braminical knowledge, and Eastern science, there are perhaps no people on the globe more ignorant of their own origin and history than the Hindoos and Chinese. Though access has been gained to the *Sanscreet* records in the city of Benares, no history of the country has been found which is the composition of a native. Mahomed Ferishta, a mussulman, in the beginning of the 17th century, compiled a history of Hindostan from Persian records, a translation of which has been given to the public by Colonel Dow. Very little, however, can be collected from the Persian Ferishta, except that Hindostan was at first divided into several small states, which fell an easy prey to the Mahommedans, and afterwards to the armies of Tamerlane. About the year 1000, of our æra, Mahomed penetrated into Hindostan, and during a period of 700 years the Mahomedan race exercised the most ferocious despotism, characterised by bigotry, rapine, and massacre. Benares, the great seat of Braminical learning, was plundered in 1184, and from that time the Sanscreet language gradually decayed till at last it ceased to be spoken. Now only a few of the Bramins can read it. Benares, however, is still the seat of learning and is held in veneration all over India. The death of Aurung Zebe, was the signal of revolt in all the provinces of the Mogul empire, and the several petty chiefs declared themselves independent of the throne of Delhi. In this situation were the affairs of India when the Portuguese first made a settlement in that country. The author then proceeds to describe the settlement of the English in India, and the subsequent extension of their territories. Considering the additions made to our empire in India in a moral point of view, he contends that we are blameable not so much *for* making accessions, as for *not* making them. He gives, as an instance, the case of the Nabob of Oude, whose territories the English so long protected from foreign enemies, while he was exercising the most wanton cruelty and rapine over his unhappy subjects. Our government, though sometimes abused in India, is so vastly superior to those of the generality of the native princes, that every addition to our territories is the greatest blessing that could be conferred on thousands of our fellow-creatures. The inhabitants themselves appear to be sensible of this, for they flock from all quarters to the English settlements, where their persons and property experience a degree of security before unknown. Without controverting the statement here made by our author in this particular instance, for to the unprejudiced it will be sufficiently obvious that a moderate government must be a blessing to these regions of tyranny and despotism, yet it is impossible to recognize the principle upon which his morality is founded, as it makes the same persons, both the judges and the parties. Indeed, it would sanction usurpation of every sort; for a line could never be drawn to distinguish when it would be a duty to conquer, and when to refrain. But the truth is, that our government in India, like all other governments, is actuated in its conquests, not by a regard to the happiness of the natives, but by considerations of wealth and policy, and here, as in almost all cases, the weaker must yield to the stronger states, who are seldom at a loss for arguments to justify their actions.

The Mahratta empire which consists of almost one half of the Peninsula of India, rose upon the downfall of the Mogul government. It is divided into a great number of independent states, which once threatened to drive the Mahomedan race out of India. The Mahrattas were, however, routed in a great battle which put an end to this project. Civil dissention has also considerably reduced their power. The government of the Mahrattas presents a specimen of the feudal system in its loosest form. It consists of a great many independent chiefs, united for the avowed purpose of plunder and desolation, exercised indiscriminately over their own subjects and their miserable neighbours. The taxes are collected by a band of soldiers, at whose approach the wretched *Rayuts* (cultivators of the ground) generally fly from their houses and villages, which upon their return they find reduced to ashes, their property burnt or plundered, and they themselves left to perish by famine. Many tracts of rich country are by these means become uncultivated desarts. It is obvious that some chief of superior talents will in the end unite the Mahrattas into one monarchy, which may become formidable to the British interests in India.

The Seiks are also a recent power which has gradually risen to independence. This nation consists of a vast number of aristocratical chiefs, equally loose and disorderly with the Mahrattas. The Seiks have

in a great measure apostatized from the Hindoo system, and approach nearly towards deism. The British, the Mahrattas, and Seiks, are the only powers in India that are at present properly independent.

The author applies a portion of his work to the description of Calcutta, its inhabitants, government, and commerce. The natives have very little experience in the art of external navigation, and every ship that goes out to sea is commanded by an European. They are, however, tolerably expert with regard to the inland navigation, but still far inferior to the Chinese. The mercantile community of Calcutta, consists of individuals from almost every quarter of the world. Many of the natives have accumulated prodigious fortunes. The Armenians are, however, the most respectable, and perhaps the most numerous body of foreign merchants in this capital. When the convalescence of his Majesty after a severe indisposition was announced in Calcutta, a general sensation of joy was perceptible over the whole city. But the most conspicuous and brilliant illuminations, accompanied by an act of charity, were displayed by an Armenian merchant. His loyalty was remarked by Lord Cornwallis, who sent for, and interrogated him respecting the cause of the particular interest which he felt in the life of his Britannic Majesty. The Armenian replied, "I have, my Lord, lived under his government for near thirty years; it has never injured me, but on the contrary always afforded me protection, and this, with industry on my part, has enabled me to accumulate a very plentiful fortune." The good sense of these few words is superior to volumes of political sophistry. The Mogul merchants are very wealthy, as well as the native Hindoos, whose great characteristic is parsimony. They are considered as the Jews of Calcutta, and were the most expert of the Israelites to deal with them, they would be defeated with their own weapons. Notwithstanding this propensity, the Hindoos are faithful and honest in all their transactions, except in those of bargain and sale, in which cases they think it a mark of superior wisdom to over-reach their neighbours.

The state of society and government in India, at a remote period, appears according to our author to have been much the same as in Europe. The independent chiefs fell naturally under the dominion of one sovereign. The lands in Hindostan were held by military tenure, excepting that large portion which was attached to their temples. The Rayuts, or cultivators of the soil, are still nearly in the same situation here, in which they were amongst the ancient Romans, *adscripti glebæ*, a sort of appendage to the land; and in England it is well known, that one of the provisions of the *Magna Charta* is, that the estates should be delivered by the guardians to the ward after his minority, *sine vasto hominum vel rerum*. The ranks of the Hindoos as far as they are influenced by government are three, the superior Rajahs, who are nominally subject to the Mogul Emperor; the inferior Rajahs who pay tribute to their respective superiors; and the Rayuts, or peasants. But superstition has rendered the distinction of ranks more complex. The Hindoos, it is now well known, are divided into four Casts. Besides these, there are a considerable number, who, for their own or their forefather's delinquency in perhaps accidentally having wounded some cows, in whose bodies, for any thing they knew, might be lodged the souls of their grandfathers, are excommunicated and belong to no class. These are completely separated from all the other Hindoos, as even their touch is deemed pollution. The Brahmins alone are permitted to read and explain the Vedas. The other classes would incur inexpiable guilt by inspecting them. The Khutry, or military class alone is allowed even to hear them read. The Pourahnas less sacred than the Vedas are permitted to be read to the Byse, but all are too sacred to be read to the degraded race of Souders. As if these distinctions were insufficient, every art and profession creates a separate rank from which those who exercise it can never emerge, nor change their hereditary employments. There are nearly an hundred subordinate tribes in the society of the natives here, which do not intermarry nor associate except with their own peers. Mr. Solvins of Calcutta, a native, has drawn an individual of each tribe, occupied in his particular trade or profession.* The Bramins, it need scarcely be observed, constitute the class from which the priests are taken, but the greater part of them, like the levites among the Jews, are permitted to undertake other employments, and they are therefore to be found in every station except that of menials. In the Hindoo code as in the old Gothic system of laws, crimes are punished, not according to the degree of guilt, but according to the rank of the delinquent. No crime however heinous, subjects a Bramin to capital punishment, but if a Souder give much trouble to a Bramin, the magistrate is directed to put him to death.

The only advantages with which the Hindoo superstition is attended, are the good effects that result from abstinence and frequent ablutions. But these are counterbalanced by the many and almost insurmountable obstacles which it presents to the progressive improvement of the people. It opposes improvement in husbandry, and increase in population, by precluding the use of many important articles of food. The number of holidays amounting to ninety-one in the year, and the expensive nature of their festivals, are additional foes to industry, and waste both the time and substance of the Hindoo, besides encouraging and perhaps generating that indolent habit for which the natives are remarkable. In the Hindoo superstition, another serious obstacle to improvement is the manner in which labour is divided among the several classes. A man is confined to that particular sphere in which he was born, and no room is left for turning himself to the profession to which his talents and inclinations are bent. His birth fixes him to one art, and no eminence in that art can raise him to additional distinction. The vast number of pilgrimages and rigid penances recommended by the Hindoo superstition are also hostile to the comfort and progress of society. At certain festivals vast crowds of the natives resort from all parts of India to *Jangernaut*, and other Pagodas of extraordinary sanctity, and consume their time in idle and expensive ceremonies. "Many thousands of people," says our author, "are found

* This work has been completed, and may be had at the shop of Messrs. Nicols, Pall-Mall.

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carrying water from Hurdwar to *Jangernaut* for the uses of that temple. The water at Hurdwar is reckoned particularly holy as it issues from what is called the cow's mouth. This superstitious notion is the cause of as much lost labour as would long since have converted the largest province of Asia into a garden. The numbers thus employed are immense: they travel with two flasks of the water slung over the shoulder by means of an elastic piece of bamboo. The same quantity of water, the carriage of which employs perhaps 15,000 persons, might be carried down the Ganges in a few boats annually. Princes and families of distinction have this water carried to them in all parts of Hindostan: it is drunk at feasts as well as upon religious occasions. The fanaticism of some, as if these journies were not sufficiently tedious and fatiguing when performed in the usual manner, has devised an extraordinary method of enhancing their merit. Some hundred miles have been lately travelled by a zealous devotee, who prostrated himself and measured every inch of the ground with his body, as he advanced. Years must have been consumed by this deluded wretch in prosecuting this devout *imagination* (scheme) which can only tend to make his life useless, and his example dangerous to society."

The author then proceeds in the detail of various penances inflicted upon themselves by the Hindoos, which are equally horrid and disgusting. When a sick person's life is despaired of, he is carried to the banks of the Ganges, his mouth and nose are filled with mud, and there he is left to drown or suffocate. The vast number of human bodies in a putrid state, that are thus carried down the river, and thrown out upon its banks, often occasion the most destructive diseases before they can be devoured by the numerous kites and vultures that are constantly hovering around them. But the injury produced to morals as well as industry by the Hindoo superstition is still more extensive. Many of their festivals are impure beyond description. The orgies of Bacchus, and the ceremonies of the *Bona Dea* among the Romans were less gross than many of the religious ceremonies of the Hindoos. The *Ruth Jatra*, or riding of the gods is at once cruel and indecent. The images exposed in the most indecent attitudes, are drawn along in a carriage by a thousand fanatics, many of whom fall under the wheels in a transport of devotion, and are thus as they imagine put in possession of a blessed immortality. A vast number of dancing girls are dedicated to the gods of particular temples, whose lascivious gestures give reason to suppose that they are employed for the service of the priests, rather than the gods. The Vedas, Pourhanas, and other sacred books of the Hindoos, contain an unexceptionable system of morality, but these are as little known to the vulgar, as if they had never existed. The ignorance of the Hindoo, therefore, is gross beyond description, and inspires him with a timidity which he cannot, and attempts not to, overcome. He obeys with a promptitude that appears the dictate of nature rather than reflection. In any work or manufacture carried on by an European, he receives his instructions as if the dictates of inspiration. The diffidence of the Seapoy is equally remarkable. Led to battle by an European officer, he is steady and brave, but flies, at the instant the officer falls, though there should be more danger in the retreat than in the battle. In India there are none to expose the priestcraft of the Bramins, whose doctrines are received with implicit credit, and there are therefore no sectaries. The superstition of the Hindoo is also unfavourable to morality, as the most abandoned character may retain his rank, while an honest man, by touching any thing impure, may be liable to excommunication. In their marriages, the utmost attention is paid to rank on both sides, for a Hindoo who should contract an alliance with one of inferior rank, would not only be detestable to himself, but would debar his posterity from all intercourse with society. In short, the tendency of this superstition is to encourage mutual aversion and disgust, and the Bramins and Princes accordingly appear to think themselves of a different race of beings from the lower classes, whom they therefore treat with the most unfeeling barbarity, and wanton cruelty.

Having thus described the Hindoo superstition and its effects, our author proceeds to consider the jurisprudence of this people, their antiquities and penances, but through these our limits do not allow us to follow him particularly. Several very judicious observations are however made relating to the effects of their peculiar laws, which are remarkable for their minuteness, the domestic economy of the individual families of every rank being distinctly detailed. The observations upon the claims of the Hindoos to an extravagant antiquity, and upon the credulity of those who suppose that these claims invalidate the biblical chronology, are both just and acute.

The Mussulmans in India are distinguished by a peculiar ferocity of manners and conduct. In their morals too they are remarkably depraved. But although forgetful of the moral precepts of their prophet, they are sufficiently superstitious. Their ferocity and enthusiasm is well characterized in the celebration of the grand festival of *Mohurrum*, in which the Mahommedans of India and Persia lament the death of *Imaum Hossein*, the second son of the prophet by Fatima. The account given of this feast by our author is as follows:—

"On the death of Ali who was assassinated, a different house succeeded to the Caliphat. In the reign of Yezzed the second of his family, the inhabitants of Cufa sent an embassy to Hossein at Medina, to request him to assume the government. Hossein, upon this invitation, set out for Cufa, with his family and a considerable number of troops. Yezzed having received intelligence of his march, dispatched after him an army of ten thousand men; whilst occupying the ground between him and the river Euphrates, he cut off his supply of water. His adherents terrified at the prospect of perishing with thirst, forsook him in such numbers, that he soon found himself at the head of only a small retinue of seventy-two persons chiefly his relations. After suffering various distresses, this small but determined body was surrounded on the tenth of *Mohurrum* by the army of Yezzed, and entirely cut to pieces. In this little troop, Asher, the infant son of Hossein was killed by an arrow in the arms of his father, and Hossein himself at last fell, exhausted with fatigue, and fainting under numberless wounds. All these events are represented by the Mahommedans and their priests during the *Mohurrum*, on the first day of which the latter mount the pulpits and begin the recital of the life

and actions of Ali and his sons *Hassan* and *Hossein*, describing particularly the melancholy circumstances that attended the death of the latter, with all the pathos of which their eloquence is susceptible. The effect of these harangues on the enthusiastic multitude is remarkable. They strike their breasts with frantic violence, weep and exclaim *Hrif ax Hossein*, alas for Hossein. During each day of the solemnity, some particular act of the story is represented by the people selected for personating the characters concerned. Effigies and large machines are carried in procession about the streets; crowds follow, personating the armies of Yezzed, and of Hossein, each under their respective banners and ensigns. By these representations the zeal of the multitude is raised to a degree of ardor approaching to phrenzy. Some voluntarily inflict wounds upon themselves; some engage in conflicts with daggers and swords, and seem to court death. Many in the course of the *Mohurrum* are slain, and as often as it happens, it is their uniform belief, that the souls of the deceased are instantaneously wafted to Paradise. The pious Mahommedan abstains almost entirely from water during the ten days of this solemnity in commemoration of the dreadful sufferings endured by this saint from the want of that element. On the tenth day, the coffins of the slain in battle are brought forth stained with blood. After the corps (bodies) have been solemnly interred, the priests mount the pulpit and again read the tragical story; and the whole service concludes with pious curses and imprecations upon the Caliph Yezzed and all his adherents."

The author gives a general sketch of the Mahratta government, of the trades and professions of the Hindoos, their hell, or state of punishment, and of the government of the East India Company in Hindostan, which concludes the first volume.

The second volume, which treats of the rural economy of the Hindoos, consists chiefly of short essays on the various objects to which the author's attention was directed in that department. Into the contents of this volume we shall not enter particularly, as the subject, though not perhaps less important, would in general be less interesting. The objects of which the author treats are the population of British India, the imperfections of Hindoo husbandry, the method of cultivating the sugar cane, the Hindoo mode of travelling by land and water, their ploughs and carts, their draught cattle, the elephant, camel, the buffalo, &c. &c. the various sorts of plants and grain cultivated by the natives, the mines and pearl fisheries, the salt manufactures, collection of the revenues, distribution of property in land and the profits of husbandry in Bengal. Superstition appears to be the great cause of the imperfection of the Hindoo husbandry. Their ploughs are so imperfect that the author denominates their operation by the emphatic epithet of *scratches* rather than *furrows*. But such is the veneration of the Hindoo for the custom of his fathers that no inducement can make him adopt a more effectual and speedy method of cultivation. The work concludes with the author's conjectures concerning the future increase of trade and commerce in British India.

This book contains a great deal of curious and important matter. We have perused it with uncommon satisfaction, which was enhanced by the modesty of the author, who did not raise our expectations to too high a pitch at the commencement. One important feature will be distinguished by the reader throughout the work, which is, that the author writes with moderation. He neither rates too high, nor wishes to depreciate the Braminical learning; neither conceals the defects of the British government in India, nor under-rates the advantages with which it has certainly been attended to the native inhabitants. The stile is in general decent, but sometimes obscure and often incorrect. This, however, might have arisen from causes for the effect of which the author is not answerable. Upon the whole, these volumes contain much more information both curious and important on a variety of subjects, than the title of the book could possibly have led us to expect. H.

Bisset's History of the Reign of George the Third.

Continued from page 144.

The first chapter is rather the conclusion of the Introduction than the commencement of the history, as it begins with the seven years war, and ends with the death of George the Second. The history of the present reign therefore commences with the second chapter, the principal part of which is occupied by a detail of military occurrences, though the conclusion of it relates the memorable event of the resignation of Mr. Pitt and the elevation of the Earl of Bute, an event which cannot be sufficiently lamented, as it prevented the nation from receiving a peace from the same hand which had carried on the war with an energy commanding success unexampled in our annals, and indeed almost miraculous in a government like ours, where the vigorous operations of the wisest and firmest minister are liable to so many checks from the nature of our constitution, and which is well defined by the poet:

> A consequential ill that freedom draws
> A bad effect, but from a noble cause.

The following observation on Mr. Pitt's resignation, and his character as a minister, we lay before our readers in the historian's words:

"Mr. Pitt's resignation of an employment in which his continuance would have promoted the most momentous interests of his country, cannot easily be justified. From his wisdom, his country might have expected that he would have overlooked an opposition of opinion in a case which very fairly admitted of two constructions, though he was eventually proved to be right; that his patriotism would have induced him to have employed his talents, even though every particular measure adopted might not be agreeable to his views; and that his magnanimity would overlook what he might suppose personal competitions. But, whatever sentiments were entertained respecting Mr. Pitt's going out of office, every impartial man agreed, that a greater minister had never acted under a sovereign of England. Lofty in genius, profound in wisdom, and expansive in views; inventive in counsel, bold in resolution, and decisive in conduct; he long over-bore party by unequalled ability. Sagacious in the discovery of general and official character, he discerned the fittest instruments for the execution of his plans; and employing none in offices of high political, naval, or military trust, but those whom he knew to be thoroughly qualified for effecting the purpose, he laid a sure foundation for success. The enterprises under his administration were brilliant, and the result was at once advantageous and glorious. A mind of such force of intellectual and moral qualities, energy of operation, and perseverance

of exertion, which had in its powers and endowments no motives for artifice or disguise, perhaps bestowed too little care to conceal from others that superiority which it so transcendently possessed. A little more indulgence for common understandings, and somewhat less of austerity of temper and of inflexibility of disposition, might have preserved this illustrious man to the councils of his country."

We do not readily comprehend the assertion that Mr. Pitt's resignation cannot easily be justified. We have in a former Journal expressed our disapprobation of the manner of his resignation, but surely the step itself was inevitable, as Mr. Pitt could not in the zenith of his glory be expected to take a subordinate part under lord Bute, totally unexperienced in the management of public affairs, and the Duke of Newcastle, whose only political merit was being at the head of that junto which had engrossed all the power of the state during the two preceding reigns.

The third chapter opens with the unpopularity of Lord Bute, the calling a new parliament and the resignation of the Duke of Newcastle, and leads us through the remaining events of the war, till its conclusion by the peace of Paris; and the ferments occasioned by the unpopularity of that peace, and by the excise laid on cyder. The complaints against which species of taxation are fairly stated, and as we think successfully combated by Dr. Bisset.

In Chap. IV. we find the beginning of George Grenville's administration, the madness which such a profligate character as John Wilkes was capable of exciting in the whole nation, and especially in the city of London, and the first taxation of the American colonies, an event which was productive of the most serious consequences to the civilized world, for from that event we have not only to trace the dismemberment of the British empire, but the total overthrow of that monarchy which took so active a part in effecting that dismemberment; of such causes and effects, we may say in the words of a very intelligent writer—"the things themselves were not the causes, but they occasioned causes already provided to begin to operate in producing their effects, which is what should properly be meant when great effects are said to proceed from causes apparently small."

The debates in parliament on this tax, and the various modifications of it, with occasional remarks on the situation of the other powers in Europe, occupy the next two chapters which conclude the first volume.

The seventh chapter which opens the second volume, contains the return of Wilkes from exile, his election for Middlesex, his imprisonment in the King's Bench and the consequent riots in St George's Fields, the disturbances at Boston in New England, Lord Chatham's resignation of his last official situation, and the administration of the Duke of Grafton. The eighth chapter is occupied chiefly by the contests in the several elections for Middlesex, occasioned by the repeated expulsion of Wilkes, the affairs of India, and concludes with the resignation of the Duke of Grafton. Among these interesting events we find the visit of the king of Denmark to England, and the pamphlet of Johnson, entitled The False Alarm, recorded; two objects surely unworthy the notice of history, as they were entirely insignificant in themselves and not productive of any public consequence whatever.

The ninth chapter begins with the commencement of Lord North's administration, so replete with events dangerous and nearly destructive to the country; it contains the renewal of riots at Boston, the introduction of Mr. Grenville's bill for determining contested elections, the addresses of the city of London to the King, and the extraordinary measure of Mr. Beckford in replying to the king's answer to one of them.

The most material event in the tenth chapter (and that is not very materially connected with the history of this country) is the imprisonment of the queen of Denmark; the eleventh records little worth particular notice, but in the twelfth we find what may be fairly called the commencement of hostilities in America, viz. the destruction of tea at Boston, and the act which was passed by parliament for blocking up its port. The historian begins this chapter with a short observation on this unfortunate contest:

"I come now to a part of the narrative more important than any which has hitherto been the subject of this history. I have to trace the causes and the commencement of a war, which in its progress involved maritime Europe, and in its operations displayed very frequently all the strength of the British character, in which, though the issue proved unfortunate, as the counsels were not rarely unwise, and the executive conduct not seldom dilatory and indecisive, yet the contest was on the whole not inglorious. The mass of British energy was unimpaired. Military ardour and enterprise, naval skill, courage, and ability, manifested themselves in all ranks. If Britain, having the whole force of her ancient foes and her recent friends and subjects to combat, did not come off victorious, yet she was not vanquished; she indeed lost her colonies, but did not lose her honour."

In Chapter XIII. the historian adverts to the affairs of the continent of Europe, the progress of the war between the Russians and Turks, the death of Lewis the Fifteenth and the accession of his grandson; and then describes the preparations in America for serious opposition to the mother country, but accompanied with petitions and remonstrances both to the crown and to parliament.

The next chapter takes a view of the debates and proceedings in parliament, relative to the impending contest with the colonies, and of the character of some of the parliamentary leaders; among these Mr. Fox holds a conspicuous place:

"A senator was now rising to the first rank in the first assembly of the world, who must have held a very exalted situation in any convention of statesmen and orators recorded in history, this was Charles James Fox. In the twentieth year of his age he had become a member of parliament, and young as he was, distinguished himself among the many eminent members of the house, and was at first one of the ablest supporters of administration. The facility with which he made himself master of a new question, and comprehended with such force of judgment the strength, weakness, and tendency, of a proposition or measure; his powerful argumentation, his readiness of the most appropriate, significant, and energetic language, soon rendered him conspicuous; while his daily and obvious improvement shewed that his talents had not then nearly reached the pinnacle at which they were destined to arrive. Since he joined opposition, his talents and exertions appeared more potent and formidable than even had been expected."

The fifteenth chapter opens with the commencement of hostilities at Lexington, and details the military events to the conclusion of the first campaign, which was in general highly favourable to the arms of America.

The sixteenth chapter is taken up with the debates in parliament and the various general discussions at home on the progress, as well as justice of the war, and the seventeenth chapter takes up again the series of military events from the recovery of Canada, till the surprize of the Hessians at Trenton, when the tide of fortune turned again to the Americans after having been adverse to them during the rest of the campaign.

Chap. XVIII. returns to Europe, and takes also a slight view of the affairs of India, and describes the extraordinary transaction of seizing and confining Lord Pigot, an act that creates a much greater sensation when we read it in the page of the historian, than it did at the time it took place, so entirely was the public mind absorbed by the momentous contest in which Great Britain was engaged with her colonies. In the next chapter, which concludes the second volume, the military operations in America are pursued to the surrender of General Burgoyne's army at Saratoga, when the most sanguine advocates for the war began to entertain some doubts of its final success.

The twentieth chapter, which begins the third volume, details the effects of Burgoyne's capture on the parliament and the nation at large, till the proposition of acceding to the independence of America called forth the last effort of the illustrious Earl of Chatham. The British empire in America had owed entirely its extent and stability to his energetic ministry, and however he deprecated the imprudent and rash measures which had shaken its existence, he was determined vigorously to resist the total abandonment of it; at this moment the eyes of the whole nation were fixed on him, they looked up again to the hope of seeing him once more at the head of their councils, and augured from it success to themselves, and confusion and dismay to the revolted colonies. But this hope was of short duration. His appearance in the house of lords on this occasion, is thus described by the historian :—

"His exertion, in the former part of the session, so much beyond his bodily strength, had encreased his distemper; but, informed of the business that was to be agitated, and aware of the doctrines which would be brought forward, he thought it incumbent on himself to render it manifest to the world, that though he agreed with the marquis of Rockingham and his adherents in reprobating the system of ministry, he totally differed from them on the question of American independence. He accordingly betook himself to the senate, of which, for near half a century, he had been the brightest luminary. Having arrived in the house, he refreshed himself in the lord chancellor's room, until he learned that business was about to begin. The infirm statesman was led into the house of peers, attended by his son-in-law, lord Mahon, and resting on the arm of his second son, Mr. William Pitt. *He was richly dressed in a superb suit of black velvet, with a full wig*, and covered up to the knees in flannel He was pale and emaciated, but the darting quickness, force, and animation of his eyes, and the expression of his whole countenance, shewed that his mind *retained* its primæval perspicacity, brilliancy, and strength."

It is to be regretted that this animated description should be weakened by the trifling notice of the patriot's dress, which we have marked by italics. His exertion on this occasion, in answer to the duke of Richmond who proposed an address for the acknowledging the independence of America, brought on a paroxysm that deprived him of his senses for the time, and terminated his life after a month's severe suffering.

Dr. Bisset draws a lively picture of his private, as well as political character, which is too long to be quoted here, but we select as a specimen the following short character of his eloquence; "for grandeur of conception and comprehensiveness of views, force of reasoning, depth of conclusion, and sagacity of prediction; strength and sublimity of imagery, and appositeness of allusion; for pathetic in every kind and variety; for wielding at will the judgment, fancies, and passions of his hearers, William Pitt stood unrivalled." We have often heard the eloquence of this great man compared with that of his son, and of the son of his great antagonist Mr. Fox, and the preference generally given to the two latter. The writer of this article, who has frequently heard the three, must give his opinion decidedly in favour of the first William Pitt, (he never heard him as Lord Chatham;) but in the house of commons he possessed all the splendid imagery and diction which adorn the orations of his son, and all the fervid and bold sentiments which animate those of his rival, accompanied with a commanding dignity of language and aspect, which almost seemed to awe the assembly he addressed; this effect of his eloquence was most probably lost to those who have chiefly listened to him in the house of lords.

The twenty-first chapter mentions the ineffectual attempt of the commissioners sent to conciliate the Americans, and the commencement of the war with France; and details the unfortunate and disgraceful affair off Ushant, between Admiral Keppel and the French fleet. In speaking of this, Dr. Bisset abstains from giving any opinion of his own, though he states those of the two contending parties of that time, but surely the pen of an impartial historian should have severely censured the party spirit that could induce the house of commons to bestow, with only one dissentient voice, their thanks, when the utmost that could be claimed, was to escape censure, especially as the naval historian of Great Britain will have to record this battle, (though with a long interval of peace between,) next to the glorious and decisive victory of Hawke in the same seas.

The twenty-second chapter details the interesting debates that occupied the senate at home; the following pursues the conduct of the war: the 24th again adverts to domestic events, and concludes with the dreadful riots which took place in the metropolis in the year 1780. The effect of the suppression of these riots is thus admirably expressed by the historian :—

"The effects produced by the riots on the public mind.

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are not undeserving of historical notice. Before this period, an English mob was generally considered as a test of the public opinion, an effusion of popular energy; military interference was reckoned dangerous, if not altogether unconstitutional. This seemed to be the opinion of the duke of Newcastle, when he kept a mob in pay, ready trained and disciplined, to support the recent accession of the house of Hanover, and to suppress tory tumults; a mode of conduct which had a more successful, or at least a more popular effect, than recourse to military force. But this conduct of the mob of 1780, destroyed the credit and consequence of such a body; and the disturbance has been, upon the whole, deemed fortunate for the internal peace of the country, as it has taught government to oppose the smallest beginnings of riot or popular commotion."

So true it is that good often proceeds from evil, that in all probability if the example of immediately and vigorously suppressing popular commotion had not been given in 1780, ten years afterwards the horrors of the French revolution might have been felt in Britain.

Chapter twenty-five begins with this short paragraph:

"When Britain and France quarrel, the contests of these two boldest, most enterprising and ablest of modern nations, affect the remotest regions of the earth. Disputes springing on the neighbouring coasts of the channel, tinge the distant Ganges with blood; and the pacific feebleness of eastern Asia mourns the warlike energy of western Europe."

which we must condemn, as being language totally improper for the sober page of history, this chapter is principally engaged with military proceedings, and is no otherwise particularly interesting, than by its first bringing to our notice Warren Hastings, so conspicuous afterwards both in the East and in Britain.

The two next chapters proceed alternately with the civil and military transactions, to the close of the contest in America, by the surrender of the army commanded by Lord Cornwallis. The principal feature in the twenty-eighth chapter, is the termination of the long administration of lord North. In his character of this administration, is strongly marked that propensity for general candour in our historian, which too much pervades the whole work. He concludes with these words:—

"But however erroneous and hurtful the series of measures was during this administration, far is the blame from being confined to ministers. It indeed belongs chiefly to parliament, which by its approbation sanctioned their acts, and to the people themselves of whom the greater part was eager for commencing and continuing the war. When the nation censures this burthensome and disastrous war, productive of such an enormous load of taxes, *they must remember that it* ORIGINATED IN THEMSELVES."

This might do well to readers who only know the theory of our constitution, but to those who are at all acquainted with the actual administration of it, who know the reciprocal action and reaction of government and parliament on each other, it is entirely fallacious, and if the war did originate with the people, long before its termination, it was become generally unpopular, and there never was a more weak, a more corrupt, or a more unsuccessful ministry than that which was chiefly directed by the councils of lord North.

The twenty-ninth chapter relates two glorious actions, the defeat of De Grasse by Rodney, and the destruction of the floating batteries at Gibraltar, by Elliot, which retrieved the military character and raised the drooping spirits of the nation; it also details those actions of Hastings in India, which afterwards became so prominent an object of parliamentary enquiry, and concludes with an account of the peace, which from a singular concurrence of circumstances, though it put an end to an unpopular war, was itself unpopular, and received the censure of the house of commons. Here Dr. Bisset takes a comprehensive view of this celebrated and momentous contest, and of the resources and energy of the country, which were put in action by it.

The two next chapters comprise the various proceedings of the last two years of that parliament which met in 1780 and was dissolved in 1784. The principal feature of this year was, that unprincipled coalition of parties which brought down the indignation of the people at large, who with almost one voice called on the sovereign to deliver them from the authority of their own representative assembly, by exercising his prerogative and dissolving it. The thirty-third chapter and the third volume, concludes with a summary character of that parliament, which we give in the historian's own words.

"Having begun with the most obsequious assent to every requisition of ministers, it ended with questioning the most necessary prerogatives of the crown. Its character being stamped by its successive leaders, for two sessions it exhibited the dextrous but temporary expedients, the indecisive policy and indulgent profusion of lord North. In its third year, before the two parties were fully cemented and ability assumed its native superiority, it displayed a mixture of temporising and decisive politics. In its fourth year, the supremacy of Mr. Fox being now established, its measures bore the stamp of the energy, promptness, decision, and adventurous boldness of that eminent statesman."

Mr. Fox and his India Bill seem great favourites with Dr. Bissett, but as he says of that measure, that in his own opinion, "Mr. Fox in framing his bill appears to have endeavoured to guard against the probability of such an event, (that is the King exercising his free choice in the nomination of his ministers) the permanence of Mr. Fox's connection in administration would evidently be a morally certain effect of his bill."

He then tries to vindicate Mr. Fox from the charge of *solitary* ambition, but contends that he only intended "by his India bill to secure the continuance of power to himself, his whig confederacy and their new allies." Now what is this but saying that the design of Mr. Fox by his India bill, was to raise that worst of all governments, and to which even despotism itself is comparative freedom, the oligarchy of a faction, on the ruins of the limited monarchy of Great Britain.

The fourth volume comprising eleven chapters, is almost entirely occupied by the debates in parliament, from the year 1784 to 1789, which may be very interesting in the journals of the day, but if they are noticed at all by the historian, it should be rather in an Appendix than the body of the work. Desultory matter of this kind it is impossible to analyze. The

principal features are, the Westminster election; the trial of Hastings; the motion for the repeal of the Test Act; and the King's illness. The observations on the impeachment of Hastings are in general favourable to that celebrated character, and, in our opinion, on that account just. The account of the effect of Mr. Sheridan's brilliant speech on the house of commons and on the public, is greatly exaggerated; notwithstanding the following account given of it in a note by the historian:

"The late Mr. Logan, well known for his literary efforts, and author of a most masterly defence of Mr. Hastings, went that day to the house of commons, prepossessed for the accused and against his accuser. At the expiration of the first hour he said to a friend, 'All this is declamatory assertion without proof.' when the second was finished; 'This is a most wonderful oration:' at the close of the third; 'Mr. Hastings has acted very unjustifiably:' the fourth; 'Mr. Hastings is a most atrocious criminal:' and at last; 'Of all monsters of iniquity, the most enormous is Warren Hastings!'

Whatever the feelings of this gentleman might be; the senator should consider eloquence as the mathematician did poetry, who being asked his opinion of Virgil, said his language to be sure was very fine, but he proved nothing. Whoever reflects on the events of this war, and compares our defeats in America with our successes in India, an empire lost with an empire encreased and strengthened, will think if any censure was necessary, it was surely misplaced, by being pointed against the only man who had rendered any essential service to his country.

The principal foreign occurrences that attract the historian's notice during this period are the disturbances in Holland and Austrian Flanders. E.

[We are under the necessity of deferring the remainder of this analysis till our next Number.]

A Charge Delivered to the Clergy of the Diocese of London, in the year 1803. *By the Right Reverend Beilby, Lord Bishop of that Diocese.* 8vo. *pp.* 40. *London* 1804. *Cadell and Davies.*

It is singularly fortunate when instructions of the utmost importance to the good conduct and happiness of mankind are given, if it so happens that they receive at the same time additional authority from the character and station of the instructor. These advantages are all combined in an eminent degree in this very interesting publication. It is probably the last donation to the public of one long known to it as a character eminently adorned with the elegant accomplishments of literature, who has spent a long life in the assiduous culture of all the amiable and ennobling virtues, and who has laboured with more than common success to recommend these virtues to others.

He begins with adverting to the dangers to religion and morality in this country, from the present state of religion and morality in some other parts of Europe; and in persuasive terms displays the obligation under which this circumstance places the clergy of the Church of England, to the exercise of every virtue and talent which can resist this mighty evil. The species of efforts and labours which he recommends for this purpose are truly evangelical, and could not fail to have all the great and blessed effects, which the venerable instructor ascribes to them.

Beside the incalculable effects which would flow from the admirable behaviour of the clergy, in diffusing virtue and happiness through the community, a secondary object of no slight importance in the estimation of the Bishop of London would be attained, an increase of influence and respectability to the Church of England. No one can doubt the justice of his opinion:

"It is, I believe, says he, a fact which admits of little doubt, that when the itinerant preacher goes forth upon his mission, he commonly looks out for those parishes where either the shepherd has entirely deserted his flock, and is employing or amusing himself elsewhere, or where he unfortunately pays so little attention to it, is so indolent, so lukewarm, so indifferent to its welfare, as to make it an easy prey to every bold invader."

A parish placed in such a situation as is here described, can hardly be said to fall a prey, but to be rescued from danger, by the zealous teacher of almost any system of christianity. Since it is hardly possible for any religion to be so bad as no religion. He truly states that a church, well constituted, and supported by the state, wants only the weight and influence of a learned, exemplary, and a diligent clergy, to command the affectionate obedience of the great body of the people. The necessity and advantage of an established church he maintains from the result of the experiments which have been made to dispense with such an institution in France and in America.

Among other instructions to the clergy, the prelate mentions with particular emphasis, *personal residence upon their cures*, "without which," says he, "scarcely one of the pastoral duties can be effectually performed."

Sunday schools, from their subserviency to the good education of the poor, receive the warmest eulogiums of the author; and the remaining part of the discourse is dedicated to the consideration of the advantages of education to that class of the community. The observations are admirable, and urged with that grave and moral pathos, which must affect the heart of every good man:

"In order to see, in the clearest light, the different effects of ignorance and of right education on the lowest classes of the people, we have only to recollect what passed during the late war in the two islands which constitute this United Kingdom. In one of these, it is well known that the ignorance and superstition of the peasants and the labourers are scarcely to be equalled in any other civilized country in Europe. It is a fact ascertained by the most diligent and accurate inquiries, lately set on foot in that island, that even in the most enlightened part of it, not above one-third of the people receive any education at all; and throughout the rest of the island, not a twentieth part have even learnt their alphabet. This is a degree of ignorance which carries back our thoughts to the ages of Gothic barbarism, and was scarcely to be expected in what we call these enlightened days. It is Egyptian darkness; darkness that may be felt. And what has been the consequence of it? Such scenes of wanton cruelty and savage ferocity as exceed all power of description, and ought, indeed, rather to be buried in everlasting oblivion. I shall only, therefore, say, in the words of the prophet, that the common people

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of that island were "destroyed for *lack of knowledge*." "Their understandings were darkened, being alienated from the life of God, through the ignorance that was in them. "Let us now turn our eyes to our own island, and see what was the conduct of the common people of this country at the same period of time, and under the same incitements to disaffection and infidelity. They were at first, indeed, staggered, and for a while imposed upon, by those bold licentious principles which the partizans of the French revolution propagated with so much industry through the kingdom. But they soon recovered from this delirium; they saw through the wicked artifices of the abettors of anarchy and irreligion. They saw the frightful dangers that surrounded them; prepared to meet them with vigour, and actually repelled them with success. And what was the occasion of this happy change? It was, because the higher orders of the community could write, and the inferior orders could read. It was, because, for more than twenty years before, upwards of 300,000 children of the poor had been religiously educated in the various charity schools and Sunday schools of this kingdom."

"It has, I know, been sometimes asserted that ignorance is the mother of devotion. It is no such thing. It is the mother of superstition, of bigotry, of fanaticism, of disaffection, of cruelty, and of rebellion. These are its legitimate children. It has never yet produced any other; and never will to the end of the world. And we may lay this down as an incontestible truth, that a well-informed and intelligent people, more particularly a people well acquainted with the sacred writings, will always be more orderly, more decent, more humane, more virtuous, more religious, more obedient to their superiors, than a people totally devoid of all instruction and all education."

The concluding paragraph, which conveys so powerfully some of the most tender, as well as the sublimest emotions which the human mind is capable of feeling, is too valuable to be denied to our readers:

"I have now stated to you what appeared to me most worthy of your attention, and most necessary at the present moment. And as at my advanced period of life, I dare scarcely indulge the hope of being permitted to meet you again in this place, I was anxious to take this opportunity of collecting into one view, and pressing upon your most serious consideration, every thing that presented itself to my mind, as most conducive to your real credit and welfare, to the best interests of the Church of England, and to the general diffusion of sound morality and genuine piety and religion throughout the great mass of the people of this land. What I have here offered to your thoughts, I do in my best judgment, after the most mature consideration and the experience of a long life, most conscientiously believe to be well calculated for those important purposes; and I entreat you to receive it as the advice of one who can now have no other possible view in this world but that of discharging the various duties incumbent on him (more especially those which he owes to you) to the best of those abilities which God has given him. And it will be my last and most fervent prayer to heaven, that both you and I may be well prepared for that most awful account which we must all of us give of the sacred and important trust reposed in us, at the tribunal of our Almighty Judge."

M.

Elements of Religion, containing a simple Deduction of Christianity, from its Source to its Present Circumstances, in a Series of Letters to a Young Lady. By Mrs. Marriott. *4 vols. 12mo. Rivingtons.*

This work may be considered as a complete history of religion from the earliest ages to the present time. The authoress justly observes, that many females enter the world with vague ideas of the christian faith; while others regard it as something gloomy, and hostile to every enjoyment of life, which cannot be reduced to practice by people who live in what is called the world. These notions expose those who entertain them to the sophisms of infidels on the one hand, and the delusions of the Roman Catholic on the other. Some therefore endeavour to find shelter from the accusations of conscience in the bosom of infidelity, and others eagerly adopt a system of faith, where absolution for their sins can be purchased as often as they please. Hence the emigrant clergy from France were very successful in making proselytes, a circumstance which certainly arose from the prevalence of those notions to which we have alluded. An initiatory work calculated to display, in a manner suited to the comprehension of youth, the nature and history of the christian religion, considered as a whole, was certainly a great *desideratum*. This our authoress has supplied, and has conferred a benefit of no common sort both on the rising generation and posterity. In the fashionable system of education, Religion appears to form a feature of little importance, especially as far as respects female education. Boarding-school instructors in general do not themselves understand the subject, nor are capable of appreciating its importance. How then can it be expected that the listless attempts which they make to convey religious instruction to others, should be attended with much good effect? The truth is, that the religious education received in female boarding schools, is for the most part a mere form, which leaves the pupil with no more knowledge of the subject than this, that there is such a book in the world as the bible, and that the christian religion is the one established in this country. We have known some of those learned ladies who, eager to display their philosophical powers by some singularity, like other modern philosophers, thought proper to turn sceptical with regard to some of the leading doctrines of christianity, and to instill their own notions into those unfortunate females who were under their care, as sound and genuine gospel. But to all teachers in boarding-schools in general, and more particularly to those who are disposed to be *singularly* learned, we would most earnestly recommend the present work, as they may depend upon it, that in the hands of their pupils it will be more useful than the most *singularly* sublime notions that they can teach them. The plan of the book is as follows. The first volume contains a sketch of natural religion, in the course of which the insufficiency of human reason, and the necessity of a divine revelation to enable mankind to form just notions of the deity, and to teach them how he ought and desired to be worshipped, is correctly displayed, yet in a manner and stile level to the comprehension of ordinary and tender capacities. The christian revelation is then examined in a summary manner, and the proofs of its authenticity stated. The authoress then opens the history of the Old Testament, commencing with the account of the creation as given by Moses, the justness of which she proves from several circumstances. The nature of man is investigated, and the

Christian faith proved to be perfectly reconcilable to reason, in the course of which the arguments of the Deists are combated and turned against themselves. The history is then continued, and the first volume concludes with the departure of the children of Israel from Egypt. The second, pursuing the Biblical history, contains an account of the eventful progress of the Israelites to the land of promise. The design of the ceremonies of the law and of the Jewish ritual, are here examined with skill and method. The Israelites take possession of the promised land, and a concise view is given of the events which took place in the history of that people till the completion of the canon of the Old Testament by Simon the Just, which concludes the second volume. The third volume opens with a recapitulation of the history of the Old Testament, and then proceeds with the Gospel history, the connection of which with that of the Old Testament is briefly pointed out. The nature and object of the christian dispensations are here displayed with great accuracy and simplicity. This volume closes with the resurrection and ascension of our Lord. The fourth and last volume gives a concise but just view of church history. Here some judicious reflections are introduced relative to the correspondence between the ordinances of the law and the particular events of the gospel. The authoress proceeds with the travels of the Apostles in propagating the christian faith, in the course of which the design of several epistles in the New Testament naturally comes under consideration. A correct outline then follows of the progress of the christian religion, the assumption of supremacy by the Bishop of Rome, the injury sustained by christianity from the irruption of the barbarians of the north, the origin of the Reformation and its progress in England. An account succeeds of the various sects that arose after the Reformation, from the puritans, levellers, millenarians, antinomians and quakers, to the modern philosophers and illuminati. The work concludes with a recapitulation of the whole.

From this luminous arrangement some idea may be formed of the general merits of the work. It gives a clear, concise, simple, and methodical view of the whole system of Christianity. The object of the authoress appears to have been to enable youthful minds to comprehend the christian system as a whole, by laying before them a work, whose simplicity would render it level to their comprehensions, and whose conciseness would preclude the danger of fatiguing their attention. This object she has executed with great ability and has conferred a more important benefit on society, than many of those whose works may gain more attention from the world. By those however to whom the religious education of their children is of importance, and who feel for their temporal and eternal welfare Mrs. Marriot's work will be prized as its excellency deserves. D.

A Postliminious Preface to the Historical Review of the State of Ireland, 4to. pp. 45. Carpenter.

The author himself seems to have entertained the idea of something odd in this publication, and he has assigned a weighty consideration to obviate the surprise of his reader. "The marvellous fertility," says he, "of the present æra in extraordinary occurrences will reconcile the reader to the publication of a postliminious preface to a work, that has been upwards of six months before the public." This is the first sentence of the performance, and we are thence to conclude that in the author's opinion, the publication of his 45 pages is one of the "extraordinary occurrences, in which the present æra is marvellously fertile." We recommend the introductory paragraph entire, as one of the most complete specimens which we have ever seen, of common-place or trifling sentiments, set out in extravagant language. We may quote the sentence immediately following that noticed above; "Whilst the Great Ruler of the universe continues to produce the wise ends of his providence over human beings through secondary causes, the reasoning powers with which he has gifted them, continue to be the ordinary means, by which he enables them to face the circumstances of the day, however awful, pregnant, or unprecedented they be." If the reader would like to see this turned into plain English, it is barely this, that our reasoning powers are our guides in this life. We have mentioned this error more particularly, because the stile of Mr. Plowden, though defective in every thing which concerns elegance, nay in purity, and even sometimes in grammar, cannot in general be charged with bombast.

The publication of the historical review, has been attended by certain circumstances, which, according to the author, require to be disclosed to the public, "as affecting the credit of that work, as touching most intimately, the interests of Ireland, and therefore involving the firmness and prosperity of the British empire." Before, however, he begins his narration of these circumstances, he thinks it proper to take notice of a very violent attack on his history, published in two Numbers of the British Critic. He indignantly repels the charge that he wrote the book *to serve the interests of a party*, or has wilfully misrepresented in it either person or thing. He exposes a few of the false charges brought against him; and treats the authors of the British Critic pretty nearly in the same style in which they treat him.

His transactions with ministers, which he relates fully in the remaining pages, are interesting in a very considerable degree. They afford a specimen of the manner in which these great men think themselves entitled to behave, toward those whom they consider as their inferiors; scenes which are much less frequently disclosed than they ought to be; as the sufferers on such occasions love rather to conceal the humiliations to which they have been subjected, than to make them known. We praise Mr. Plowden very highly for the courage, apparently very uncommon, with which he has broken through this restraint; and we hope his example will be imitated by others. Let the arrogance and absurdity of every ridiculous, and unworthy son of fortune, be fairly exposed to the derision of the world; and we shall meet with fewer of those petty acts of injustice, which the law cannot punish, and which a cowardly and ill-disposed man may therefore perpetrate without fear.

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As far back as the year 1792, the author had several

conversations with Mr. Pitt upon the subject of Ireland, and put into his hands a paper, which is printed as a note in this publication, and contains all the pressing reasons, drawn from the state of Ireland, which could be urged for the emancipation of the catholics. We cannot afford a sufficient space to give our readers the substance of it. But it is well worthy of attention; and does no little honour to the author's judgment and sagacity. It is by much the finest production which we have seen from his pen. He was ordered to put a copy of it into the hands of Mr. Dundas (now lord Melville.) He did so; "and from that hour, though he frequently solicited an interview with that minister, he never could obtain one during the remaining nine years he continued in office, though the objects of his solicitation were of the first national magnitude." How often during that period, were persons admitted to this great man for very trifling purposes, or purposes which we might perhaps denominate worse than trifling! To the alarming conviction of us all it is now proved, how much the state of Ireland at that time, required the application of a wise, and generous policy. We now feel some of the direful effects of the ignorance and inattention with which it was then treated. That part of the empire, which, if properly managed, would nearly double its strength and riches; does, by mismanagement, at this moment of difficulty and alarm, increase our dangers and our fears. And the right arm of the British empire, instead of defending itself, requires a great part of our attention to secure it from being torn from the rest of the body.

In the year 1801, the author, reflecting on the disjointed and discordant state of Ireland, which threatened the most alarming consequences; and observing that the misrepresentations and calumnies which were circulated and believed, concerning the great body of the Irish, had the strongest tendency to inflame the animosity which prevailed; in particular that the artificial and forced circulation of Sir Richard Musgrave's memoirs of the Irish rebellion, "a work so false, inflammatory and malignant, that Lord Cornwallis had been forced publicly to disclaim the dedication of it," was actually producing the greatest mischief,—solicited an interview, which was readily granted, with Mr. Addington, to represent to him how much it had become an object of national importance, "that a fair, impartial, and authentic history of that country should be written to counteract the effects of Sir R. Musgrave's, and such other *Orange* publications, in order to reconcile the public mind in Ireland to the measure of Union." The minister entered fully into the author's sentiments, gave him a commission to undertake the work he described, and subjoined a gracious remark, "that he was happy in employing the author's talents in an undertaking of so much utility to the public." The author, as a test of his sentiments, and of the spirit in which the work would be drawn up, put into the minister's hands a copy of the letter and paper which he had formerly submitted to Mr. Pitt. As a compensation for his trouble and loss of time in going over to Ireland to collect materials, the author was to receive three hundred pounds, one hundred to be paid down, the second hundred at Michaelmas, and the third when he should be ready to go to press. And such a recommendation was promised him to Mr. Abbot, the Irish secretary, as should secure him a satisfactory reception at the castle.

Upon going to Ireland he was received with the utmost coldness by Mr. Abbot; and refused all access to state papers, which he was told were the property of the different secretaries, and carried away by them, upon quitting their office. The Journals and statutes, however, and a file of the Freeman's Journal, kept in the castle, were granted to his inspection. To obtain these, it was recommended to him to wait upon Mr. Secretary Abbot, who was visible at the castle, on business, only on Tuesdays and Fridays, from the hour of eleven till four. On the ensuing Tuesday he announced himself to Mr. Abbot at eleven, and was admitted at ten minutes before four o'clock. Mr. Secretary was on his legs, booted and spurred, on the point of departing.

"With very intense application, the author had by the end of January 1802, sufficient manuscript prepared to go to press, and as he had offered to submit it to the perusal of any person whom Mr. Addington should appoint on his behalf, he carried the manuscript to Mr. Hiley Addington, who had hitherto been his pay-master, to know before whom the manuscript should be laid, and to solicit the third and last payment of one hundred pounds. Now, for the first time, the author remarked an unwillingness on the part of his employers, that the work should go on." He was told that the money would only be paid when the work was published, and that if not approved of, it would never be published at all, nor he paid any thing more. In consequence of this reception he solicited an interview with the minister, and after some days had intervened procured the honour of an appointment. After he had waited with his manuscript some time in Downing-street, he was remitted to another day by Mr. Hiley Addington. Five subsequent appointments were made and ended in the same manner; an unforeseen press of business, or the intervention of some one of more consequence prevented admission. A fresh appointment brought the author and his manuscript a seventh time to Downing-street, where after having waited for three quarters of an hour, he was in the old stile remitted to the following day. Upon retiring the author was accosted by Mr. Hiley Addington, and imperiously told that had he chosen to be punctual to his time, his brother would have seen him. The author replied, that he had arrived in Downing-street five minutes before the hour of appointment. *That cannot be*, said Mr. H. A. and instantly demanded to see the author's note, which he had not about him.

Next time he was admitted. Mr. H. A. was present. The author justified his punctuality the preceding day, and held the letter of appointment in his hand, offering to shew it in confirmation. On this the minister, with a familiar nod, said, *I told you so brother*. "Instantly the letter was snatched violently out of the author's hand, from behind, by Mr. Hiley Addington, and committed to the flames. A dead silence ensued for about a minute. The author with difficulty believed, but fortunately reflected, where he

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was." He was then ordered to be seated, and on making a reflection on the different countenance with which he was now received and formerly, "was sternly assured, that it rested with himself: for that he had been the only individual in the nation, who had had the indelicacy to break in upon the minister's feelings, by pressing for an interview, when he was suffering under the domestic misfortune of his daughter's illness." This indelicacy the author could not conceive, after the minister had attended three times in his place in the House of Commons. This interview ended in the minister's consenting to pay the remainder of his engagement, but declining to appoint any body to peruse the manuscript, that the whole responsibility might remain with the author. The only remaining communications of the author with his employers, before the publication, is a correspondence, requesting admission to the state papers relating to Ireland, a thing which he was told that *now* he could not obtain, and the letter which the author sent to the minister on the accomplishment of his undertaking.

After the publication of the work the author repeatedly and urgently solicited the minister for an interview, which at last was granted on the 28th of September 1803. The minister expressed great offence, and even assumed no small portion of merit to himself for suppressing his indignation. He had been informed, he said, that the most unwarrantable freedom had been taken in speaking of certain characters, to which government looked up for the salvation of Ireland. A strange declaration followed, "That the errors and faults (if any had ever existed) of his Majesty's servants ought to have been suppressed not exposed." He referred with peculiar emphasis to the question called Catholic emancipation; and took particular pains to convince the author that his opinions upon that subject had been made upon the purest motives of conscience; adding that he repented not having sooner reflected on what must have been the author's sentiments upon this question, *by the resistance of which he stood in that house* (the house of the Chancellor of the Exchequer in Downing-street,) and which he should ever continue to oppose till his latest breath." In the course of this interview, Mr. Addington very distinctly and very forcibly, *thrice* intimated to the author, that by his pledged resistance to the question of catholic emancipation, he had come into and continued *in that house*. The author was sharply interrogated whether he could for an instant presume it to have been the minister's wish or intention that a syllable should have been dropped from his pen, to the disparagement of the respectable names of Clare, Foster, and Beresford. He asserted that there was no difference whatever in the spirit and principles of the two governments of Earl Camden and Marquis Cornwallis. This all the members of the present administration labour to maintain.

The author next makes some general observations on the present resistance to catholic emancipation, and on the correspondence between Lord Redesdale and the Earl of Fingall.

The behaviour of the author's bookseller is the last particular of which we shall take notice. Before the author went to Ireland, he made arrangements with Mr. Egerton, who is bookseller to the army, for the publication. When he came back, and Mr. Egerton was informed that government had discouraged the work, he declined the engagement, till the author procured an assurance from Mr. Hiley Addington against any displeasure from government. But this is not all. Since the publication of the book, and since the declared disapprobation of ministers, the bookseller is charged by Mr. Plowden with checking the sale. For the accuracy of this statement, we are not qualified to vouch. That a transaction of this description, if ever it happened, or shall happen, merits the severest condemnation, there can be but one opinion. M.

An Authentic Account of the late unfortunate death of Lord Camelford; with an Extract from his Lordship's Will, and some Remarks upon his Character. By the Rev. William Cockburne, *A. M.* 8vo. *pp.* 17. *Hatchard.*

We greatly commend the motive which induced Mr. C. to pay this tribute to the memory of his friend, whom he attended with anxiety to the last; and only lament that an account so authentic, and so interesting, should have been published in so much haste. Though personally unacquainted with his Lordship, the writer of this article had the honour of being known to his excellent mother; and could therefore have wished that Mr. Cockburne had dwelt longer on her son's character, against which, a very strong, though unjust prejudice, had long prevailed. In our opinion Mr. Cockburne is called upon by the Manes of his friend to enter more at large on the delicate task he has undertaken. He cannot be ignorant, that papers and letters were in the possession of lady Camelford, which her nobleness of disposition alone concealed, tending to throw light on the strange conduct of *Vancouver*, and to justify her son. We trust these, and other documents, will ere long be brought forward by Mr. C. who has it in his power to remove every aspersion, that has been cast on the character of Lord Camelford.

The following extract from his Lordship's Will, is alone sufficient to prove the goodness of his heart:

"There are many matters which at another time I might be inclined to mention, but I will say nothing more at present, than that in the present contest I am fully and entirely the aggressor, as well in the spirit, as in the letter of the word; should I therefore lose my life in a contest of my own seeking, I most solemnly forbid any of my friends or relations, let them be of whatsoever description they may, from instituting any vexatious proceedings against my antagonist; and should, notwithstanding the above declaration on my part, the laws of the land be put in force against him, I desire that this part of my Will may be made known to the King, in order that his royal heart may be moved to extend his mercy towards him."

Mr. C. thus answers what has been reported, respecting Lord Camelford's aversion from a reconciliation:—"The fact was, his lordship had an idea that his antagonist was the best shot in England, and he was therefore extremely fearful lest his reputation should suffer, if he made any concession, however slight, to such a person."

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An excellent, though concise character of Lord Camelford, was given some time since, by the ingenious author of the suffrages of Vortigern and Rowena: this character was seen, and much approved of by his mother. Mr. C. touches very slightly on his Lordship's passion for science; Mr. Arrowsmith would have informed Mr. C. that it was his Lordship's intention, had not the present War commenced, to have fitted out a vessel at his own expence, in order to make discoveries, and correct surveys in the Indian Ocean. His lordship's character always stood very high with Vancouver's skilful master, *Mr. Whidbey*, now master attendant in Sheerness yard, as also in the opinion of *Captain Nicholas* of the Royal Navy. The daring spirit, and affectionate heart of Lord Camelford, particularly endeared him to one of the leading chiefs in the islands of Otaheite; indeed no one could know his Lordship intimately, without feeling an interest in his favour. Could he but have followed the excellent maxim of Shakspeare, our country would not now have to deplore his loss, who too much resembled Hotspur:

> Still in thy right hand carry gentle peace
> To silence envious tongues.

Mr. Cockburne justly observes—"That warmth of disposition which prompted him so unhappily to great improprieties, prompted him also to the most lively efforts of active benevolence. From the many prisons in this metropolis, from the various receptacles of human misery, he received unnumbered petitions; and no petition ever came in vain. He was often the dupe of the designing and crafty suppliant, but he was more often the reliever of real sorrow, and the soother of unmerited woe. Constantly would he make use of that influence which rank and fortune gave him with the government, to interfere in behalf of those malefactors whose crimes had subjected them to punishment, but in whose cases appeared circumstances of alleviation.

"The world will perhaps with difficulty believe, what however I assert from my own knowledge, that christianity was the constant subject of his reflections, his reading, and his conversation." S. Q.

The Confessions of J. Lackington, late Bookseller, in a Series of Letters to a Friend. To which are added, Two Letters on the bad Consequences of having Daughters educated at Boarding-schools. 12*mo.* *pp.* 212.

Rousseau wrote his Confessions, and why may not J. Lackington? Why may not one great man imitate another, especially if he possess talents to make his confessions as palatable to a certain class as his crimes: but alas! here all comparison is at an end. Fluellin's parallel between Macedon and Monmouth will be allowed to be just, when any resemblance, unless in the title of their books, can be discovered between Rousseau and J. Lackington. But let us not, however, deprive the latter of his merit. He had sins to answer for, and perhaps more than he has recorded in these confessions; First, he was an infidel, associated with the infidel philosophers of Chiswell-street, and the Shaftesburys of Shoreditch, and he published infidel books with some avidity. But he did worse, he published a volume entitled his *Life*, and, as he now informs us, "publicly ridiculed a very large and respectable body of Christians," (namely, the Methodists) "and thus, in fact, made a *thrust* at the very *vitals* of Christianity itself, &c." To make amends to these *vitals*, he has now become a Methodist, but his conversion, like that of a rake in a novel, occurs somewhat late, about the conclusion of the volume, and, as far as we can judge from the dates of the letters (for the whole is thrown into the epistolary form) he has not quitted his old opinions, above a year, if so much.

One half of these letters consists of quotations from the religious poets, which shews, that Mr. Lackington, in the sincerity of his repentance, has omitted the sin of book-making, or the vice of vamping: for these poets are almost literally dragged in neck and shoulders without provocation or pretence, except, as aforesaid, to show how a book may be swelled. As to his Confessions, we readily concede to him that he has been a very great offender, and honestly tells us so; and we, as honestly tell him, that we could have wished, for the sake of *poetical* justice, he had repented while he had the means in his hands of making an atonement. Some of those persons who have lately been prosecuted for selling improper books, are, we hope, penitents; but none of them, as far as we learn, retired with a competency, the honest earnings of their well-meant endeavours in the service of infidelity or indecency. Repentance, however, can never come too late, and may be as sincere in broad-cloth and a feather-bed, as in sackcloth and ashes. Mr. Lackington, however, is no friend to very late repentance, and we shall beg leave to quote a passage on this subject, in which some readers will relish his wit, some his religion, and others may admire his biographical talents:

"I must confess that I cannot help thinking, that heaven would be a strange sort of a place, if every rascal, knave, and fool were permitted to go there who have, on their death-bed, experienced remorse of conscience. Such wretches as these have made a hell of this world to all connected with them; and are they to make a hell of heaven also? Can one conceive a worse hell than it would be for a perfectly honest man to live eternally with a rogue, or a virtuous woman with an old bawd; a Howard with a Robespierre; a Lucretia with Mother Johnson; Jonas Hanway with Paul Jones; Penelope with a modern wife; Aspasia and Octavia with Cleopatra and Xantippe; Guyon and Bourignon with Ninon de L'enclos and Lady M. W. M———; Socrates and Plato with Petronius and Chartres; Wesley and Whitfield with Woolston and Tom Paine; Mrs. H. More and Mrs. Rowe with Mrs. Behn and G. A. Bellamy; the Man of Ross with Elwes; Bigot Mary with Lady Jane Gray; Sophronia with Sappho; Nero and Bonaparte with Alfred and George III."

The following character of his dear partner throws some light on the difference between moral and religious character:

"As soon as I had acquired a relish for religious subjects, I wished to promote it in others, and therefore began with Mrs. Lackington. Mrs. L. is in her moral conduct one of the most perfect beings I ever saw.

"Her life's as moral as the preacher's tongue."

Her reason for being so was, "because she always thought

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she ought to be as good as she could." She, like some other ladies, had studied well, and very well understood the art of dressing elegantly, but had not the least knowledge of religion beyond that of being as good as she could; and by the bye it were to be wished that all ladies even knew as much as that. As to going to church, or private devotion, she could not see what use it could be to her. As she wanted for nothing, she did not know what she should pray for, she had never done any person any harm; she had never slandered, backbited, or ridiculed any person, nor did she know that she committed any other sin, and so she had no need of praying for pardon."

Although we cannot be so ungallant as to deprive Mrs. L. of any of the merit which belongs to the excellent opinion she entertained of herself, we must confess that our wicked memory reminds us here of a Mr. B. an eminent stock-broker deceased, and once a neighbour of Mr. Lackington's, who held an opinion of which this seems a kind of paraphrase. He used to say, "he never went to church, because he was rich, and had nothing to pray for; and all he had was his own getting, so he had nothing to be thankful for."

Our penitent is now a Methodist, but his ideas on the subject seem not very clear; perhaps there is something in deep sorrow which obstructs the critical powers of the mind. At least, we guess as much from the following passage:

"Last summer, being in Taunton, at the house of Mr. J. Smith, brother to my first wife, his son brought in a parcel of those religious tracts which are published by the Religious Tract Society, and sold cheap by T. Williams, Stationer's-court, Ludgate-street, London. I had heard before that there was such a society established, but knew not where their tracts could be had; nor did I know that they were such as were proper to be put into the hands of the poor; so that I was much pleased with an opportunity of procuring some of them. I took one of each of more than thirty sorts; and when I got home, Mrs. L. and I read them over together, in order to know if they were proper to be dispersed abroad, and whether they were calculated to do good to such as should read them. In going through these pamphlets I found that although the compilers had carefully avoided a party spirit, and appeared to be influenced by a love to their fellow-creatures, and a desire to promote the interest of religion in general, more than that of any sect or party in particular; yet I thought that in several of them inward religion was too much insisted upon. Although I looked upon myself as a member of the Church of England, yet I did not approve of that tract entitled, 'the Good Old Way, or the Religion of our Forefathers, as explained in the Articles, Liturgy, and Homilies of the Church of England, briefly displaying Man's *Ruin* by Sin; his *Recovery* effected by Christ; and his Gratitude, expressed by Obedience.' Over the title of this I wrote, 'methodistical,' and would not send for one of them; on several others I wrote, 'rather methodistical,' and of such I sent but for a few, and those I intended for some of the most ignorant and the most hardened; for I was not so much prejudiced against the Methodists as to wish my fellow-creatures to live in sin and ignorance rather than become Methodists, but could have been heartily glad to have seen the bulk of mankind turn Methodists, rather than continue to live as though they were not accountable creatures,—as though there was no future state, in which the wicked will be punished, and the righteous rewarded; or, in other words, where every man shall receive *according as his works have been, whether good or bad.* Still I was not thoroughly sensible of man's utter inability to do any thing of himself towards his acceptance of God; that *salvation* is *by grace*, and *justification by faith* in the blood of Christ; of having peace with God, and an assurance of his pardoning mercy; and *the love of God shed abroad in our hearts.* These were subjects which did not much please me. I did not at this time deny that a very few of the highly favoured people of God might, possibly, be blessed with the knowledge of their being reconciled to God; but as to it being the common privilege of real believers, was what I could not believe."

If this mean any thing, it means that the more hardened and ignorant the sinner, the more methodistically he should be treated; how far the methodists may take all this for compliment, and the first fruits of conversion, we shall leave to be settled between them and their new proselyte. Mischief was undoubtedly done by reading and disseminating infidel works, but if Mr. L. has no other sins to repent of than the positive injuries he inflicted on the Methodists, he appears to us to have little else to answer for than the intention.

Profuse as our author has been in his quotations, we cannot close this article without adding one to the number from a book, entitled, The Spectator, and written in a style by no means above his comprehension; and as he may be inclined to give it in another edition of his Confessions, we shall point out that it occurs in N° 160 of that work.

"To take off from the severity of this speculation," says Addison, and it is one of our motives for transcribing the passage. "I shall conclude this paper with a story of an atheistical author, who at a time when he lay dangerously sick, and had desired the assistance of a neighbouring curate, confessed to him with great contrition, that nothing sat more heavy at his heart than the sense of his having seduced the age by his writings, and that their evil influence was likely to continue even after his death. The curate upon farther examination finding the penitent in the utmost agonies of despair, and being himself a man of learning, told him, that he hoped his case was not so desperate as he apprehended, since he found that he was so very sensible of his fault, and so sincerely repented of it. The penitent still urged the evil tendency of his book to subvert all religion, and the little ground of hope that there could be for one whose writings would continue to do mischief when his body was laid in ashes. The Curate finding no other way to comfort him, told him that he did well in being afflicted for the evil design with which he published his book; but that he ought to be very thankful that there was no danger of its doing any hurt. That his cause was so very bad, and his arguments so weak, that he did not apprehend any ill effects of it. In short that he might rest satisfied his book could do no more mischief after his death, than it had done whilst he was living. To which he added, for his further satisfaction, that he did not believe any besides his particular friends and acquaintance had ever been at the pains of reading it,* or that any body

* This cannot allude to Mr. Lackington's Life which, if title-pages are to be credited, has passed through several editions, and is now in the course of sale, not so much to the credit of public

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after his death would ever inquire after it. The dying man had still so much of the frailty of an author in him, as to be cut to the heart with these consolations; and without answering the good man, asked his friends about him (with a peevishness that is natural to a sick person) *where they had picked up such a blockhead!*"—— R.

List of New Publications from March 1, *to March* 16, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) *are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.*

HISTORY, TRAVELS, &c.

An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa. In which is considered the Importance of the Cape of Good Hope to the different European Powers, as a Naval and Military Station; as a Point of Security to our Indian Trade and Settlements, during a War, and as a Territorial Acquisition and Commercial Emporium in Time of Peace, With a Statistical Sketch of the whole Colony, compiled from Authentic Documents. By John Barrow, Esq. vol. 2. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 15*s.*

The Journal of Andrew Ellicot, late Commissioner on behalf of the United States and Possessions of His Catholic Majesty in America, containing occasional Remarks on the Situation, Soil, Rivers, Natural Productions and Diseases of the different Countries on the Ohio, Missisippi, and Gulf of Mexico—with six Maps, &c. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*

The History of the Honourable Artillery Company of the City of London, from its earlest Annals to the Peace of 1802. By Anthony Highmore, Sollr. 8vo. (*) 12*s.* 6*d.*

Letters from France in 1802. By Henry Redhead Yorke, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. (*) 15*s.*

POLITICS.

An Account of Louisiana—being an Abstract of Documents delivered in or transmitted to Mr. Jefferson, &c. &c. 1*s.* 6*d.*

This pamphlet gives a short, and what from the nature of the documents may be deemed an authentic, account of the present state of Louisiana. It describes the boundaries and the divisions of the province, the different settlements yet made, which are chiefly confined to the banks of the Mississippi, the produce, and other particularities of the province, the inhabitants and their origin and number, the capital city, the state of the government, civil, judicial, ecclesiastical, and military, the laws, and the trade of the country. As far as Louisiana is an object of curiosity, this is an interesting pamphlet.

A free and candid Examination of a Pamphlet intitled the Substance of a Speech intended to have been spoken in the House of Lords. By R. Watson, Lord Bishop of Llandaff, Nov. 22, 1803. &c. 1*s.*

Whether Bishop Watson's reasoning be in every point sound or otherwise, the effect of his arguments will certainly remain undiminished by this performance. The author appears to have had but a very superficial knowledge of the subjects of which he treats. Sometimes he assumes that he has proved points on which he has scarcely touched; at other times his meaning is not very clear, and often he misrepresents the learned Bishop, and combats the phantoms which he himself raises. We find, however, that he is a warm partizan of the present administration, especially of Mr. Addington, whom he compares to Ulysses, and that of course he is a foe to the Opposition, especially to Mr. Windham, who, by quotations from Pope, he endeavours to prove, has a great resemblance to the railing Thersites. The comparisons, however, are in many respects unfortunate. The style is to the last degree slovenly and defective.

An Investigation into the Principles and Credit of the Circulation of Paper Money or Bank Notes in Great-Britain; together with a Discussion of the Question, Whether the restraining Law in favour of the Bank of England from paying Notes in Money ought or ought not to be continued as a Measure of the State? By William Howison, Esq. 1*s.* 6*d.*

Strictures on the Necessity of inviolably maintaining the Navigation and Colonial System of Great-Britain. By Lord Sheffield. (*) 2*s.* 6*d.*

The True Interest of the United Kingdom proved, in two Plans of Finance; to take off all the Taxes prior to 1803, and provide Thirty Millions for the present Emergency without the Income and Property Taxes, &c. By Joseph Coad. 6*d.*

THEOLOGY.

The Originality and superior Excellence of the Mosaic Institutions. By Joseph Priestley, LLD. FRS. (*) 1s. 6*d.*

A Sermon on Invasion; preached by the Rev. Sydney Smith, A.M. late Fellow of New College, Oxford, before the Mary-le-bone Volunteers. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The text of this Sermon, which is taken from Maccabees, Chapter iii. Book i. verse 59, &c. is very appropriate, and the manner in which it is treated, like the other performances of the author, merits the praise of neatness. The method of sermonizing which he has adopted borders perhaps too much on the *dapper*, and the manner in which it is printed, with the short, terse prayer prefixed to it, is in unison with this character. The animated delivery of the author however, and the occasion on which it was preached, no doubt rendered it more inspiring when heard than it now can appear on mute paper. One great defect, which has often rendered many an excellent sermon ungrateful to the hearer, the piece before us is entirely free from—the slowest and most measured articulation could scarcely extend the delivery of it to a quarter of an hour.

The Case of Hezekiah, considered as a ground of Consolation, and a Motive to Union in Prayer, at the present alarming State of the King's Health and of the British Empire, in a Sermon at Wooburn Chapel, on Sunday, February 26, 1804. By the Rev. G. A. Thomas, LL.D. 1*s.*

The words which form the ground work of this discourse, taken from II. Kings, chap. xx. verse v. are these: "Tell Hezekiah the captain of my people, thus, saith the Lord, the God of David, thy father, I have heard thy prayer, I have seen thy tears: behold I will heal thee!"—No words could be selected from the sacred volume more appropriate to the occasion on which the Sermon was delivered. The reverend author points out in several instances the correspondence both of the characters and the situations of our gracious Sovereign and the excellent Hezekiah, and from thence deduces a ground of hope that his Majesty's

taste, but surely most grievous to the author, who, in this way, may keep *thrusting* at the *vitals* of religion with one hand, while ersing godly tracts with the other.

malady would experience a termination agreeable to the wishes of an affectionate people. This hope has been since happily realized. The Sermon in question is distinguished for many judicious reflections and pious observations, and proves the author to be both a loyal subject and a zealous minister of the gospel.

LAW.

A Report of the Trial of Michael and John Hedges, for Conspiracy and Fraud, at Westminster-Hall, before the Right Hon. Edward, Lord Ellenborough, &c. 7*s.* 6*d.*

Observations on the Statute of the 1st of William and Mary, Chap. 18, commonly called the Toleration Act, and on the Statute of the 19th Geo. III. Chap. 24, intitled "An Act for the further Relief of Protestant Dissenting Ministers," &c. in Reference to Protestant Dissenting Ministers and others applying to qualify themselves upon the said Acts. By Joseph Smith, Barrister at Law. 2*s.*

SCIENCE AND MEDICINE.

The Painter's and Varnisher's Guide, or a Treatise both in Theory and Practice on the Art of making and applying Varnishes on the different Kinds of painting, and on the Method of preparing Colours, &c. &c. By P. F. Tingry. 8vo. (*) 12*s.*

A Synoptical Table of Diseases, exhibiting at one View their Arrangement in Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species; designed for the Use of Students; By Alexander Crichton, &c. &c. 2*s.* 6*d.*

POETRY.

The Year of Sorrow.—Written in the Spring of 1803. By W. R. Spencer. Royal 4to. (*) 5*s.*

Miscellaneous Poems. By John Parker. 8vo. 3*s.*

Peter Nicked: or; The Devil's Darling. A Mock-Heroic Poem. In three Cantos. By Castigator. 2*s.* 6*d.*

This is an attack upon Doctor Wolcot, well known under the assumed name of Peter Pindar. The writings of Dr. Wolcot have, in the opinion of the author, tended to the subversion of truth, morality, social order, and domestic peace. He therefore determined to give him a public *castigation* with the same kind of rod which he himself employed against others. Of the morality and delicacy of the writings of Peter Pindar we have certainly no very high opinion, yet at the same time it is impossible to deny that instances of both sometimes occur in his works. The scurrility and personality of his satire must be obvious, but his poems, unfortunately perhaps, are distinguished by one quality which we are afraid will preserve them long after all the *heroic castigations* he may receive shall be lost in oblivion. This quality is *genius*. It has been much the fashion with those whose political opinions differed from those of Peter Pindar to decry his works; but in our opinion the only weapon that could be employed with any thing like success was *silence*. We may venture to assert that nobody can read this mock heroic *Castigator* without thinking the more highly of the works which he condemns, and it is indeed so very dull and tame that the bitterest enemies of Peter Pindar must be asham'd of it. We have seen many able attacks upon this poet, but we doubt whether they have not often defeated their own purposes by bringing the works condemned into notice sooner than they would otherwise have been brought. This castigation is so exceedingly tame, that were it possible to suppose that the Poet could have written any thing so dull, we should think that he himself had been the author. Certain it is that Castigator has done a great deal of service to the person whom he condemns, for it is utterly impossible to read his mock heroic poem without being prejudiced in favour of those writings which have fallen, or rather risen, under his censure. Convinced of the faults of Peter Pindar, but sensible of his genius, we regret that the bad effects of his writings should be extended by the censures of *dullness*.

A Hint to Britain's Arch-Enemy, Bonaparté. By J. Strange. 6*d.*

This is an attack on Bonaparte in blank verse, and taking it for all in all, it can hardly be said to be below mediocrity. But if something pedantic in the title should not strike the reader, he must certainly smell the *ferula* in the poem, which is full of high sounding words and turgid diction applied sometimes in a manner that borders on the ludicrous. But the intentions of the author deserve the highest praise, and what is dictated by a patriotic feeling must always be well received though it should be inferior to Mr. Strange's poem.

MISCELLANIES.

The Synonimes of the Latin language alphabetically arranged; with Critical Dissertations upon the Force of its Prepositions both in a simple and compound State. By John Hill, LL.D. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.*

An Authentic Account of the late unfortunate death of Lord Camelford, with an Extract from his Lordship's Will, and some Remarks upon his Character. By the Rev. W. Cockburne, A.M. (*See page* 350.) 1*s.*

The Military Mentor; being a Series of Letters recently written by a General Officer to his Son on his entering the Army; comprizing a Course of elegant Instruction, calculated to unite the Characters and Accomplishments of the Gentleman and the Soldier. 2 vols. 12mo. (*) 10*s.* 6*d.*

The Man in the Moon, consisting of Essays and Critiques on the Politics, Morals, Manners, Drama, &c. of the Day. 8vo. 4*s.*

This collection of Essays was published in numbers, first twice a week, and afterwards once; but the Man in the Moon found that the world was not so much given to *lunacy* as he imagined, and accordingly the work concludes abruptly with the 24th Number. It consists of dull criticisms on the Volunteers, on the most trifling pieces lately brought forward on the stage, and occasionally on modern manners. These criticisms are perfectly tame without being enlivened by a single spark of genius. There are indeed a great many attempts at stale wit, but it is introduced so awkwardly as totally to fail of any effect. We therefore commend the prudence of the Man in the Moon in returning in good time to his lunar habitation.

Letters on the Study and Use of ancient and modern History. By John Bigland. 12mo. (*) 6*s.*

Crosby's Builders new Price Book for 1804—containing a correct Account of all the prices allowed by the most eminent Surveyors, &c. &c. By John Phillips, Author of the History of Inland Navigation, in 1 vol. 8vo. 3*s.*

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ORIGINAL POETRY.

Boxing Match at Wimbledon; January 23, 1804.

Et pugilem victorem — — —
Musa refer. HOR. A. P.

πυκτων
Δ' ἐν Ουιμβολιδωνιάδι νικᾶν. PINDAR, Ol. x, v. 20.

CERTAMEN PUGNI,

Inter Edvardum Bourke et Stephanum Pearce, vulgo dictum the Chicken, *in Wimbledoniæ pascuo publico.*

DESCENDENTE deo Auroram Polluce sub ipsam,
En Wimbledoniæ jam pascua vulgus habebat,
Atque chorus pugilum, Pittusque et Georgius Hanger,
Omnis et athletæ magnus Mellissus* amator,
Nomen ab Isthmiaco memoratum sæpe poeta,
Nam duplices palmæ te claravere Melisse.
Bourkius ipse agmen ducens, et Pearcius adstat,
Bristoliæ nigro in populo qui Pullulus audit.
Obductus nebulis medio Sol orbe vagatur.
Vestitu heroes rejecto protinus omni,
Cœperunt quadrare artus, magnosque lacertos,
Et stare in digitos, et brachia tollere ad auras,
Et sese metiri oculis, manibusque micantes
Permutare manus, pedibusque indicere pugnam.
Nil decertatum est prima vice, nilque secunda,
Tertiaque innocua est; tamen illum mole valentem
Hic melior motu in terram bis præcipitavit.
quarta et quinta cum Pullo Burkius ultro
Congressus quoties, totes prostravit arenâ,
Naribus ex Burki quamquam vis sanguinis ibat.
Tunc illi sexta impegit violentius ictum
Lumine sub lævo, et vasto cadit impete Pullus.
Septena octavaque valet vis vivida Pulli,
In caput adversum Burki qui plurima jactat
Vulnera, quorum unum incutiens crudelius ora
Includit vocem, et tantum non sanguine vitam.
Extemplo quovis contendunt pignore cuncti
Victorem fore, sed nona in certamine major
Burkius evasit, plagasque repercutit omnes,
Atque iterum in terram Pullus procumbit anhelans.
Sic optata brevem nectit victoria palmam
Alterutri, nunc cæditur hic, nunc ille triumphat.
Quatuor inque vices quæ tempora nona sequuntur,
Jam memorata, leves ægre dea ventilat alas,
Inque caput Burki recto pede stare videtur;
Lucta ferox interdum, et parte severa ab utraque est,
Jamque ter et vicies pugnatum est, nec mora, victor
Vi genuum nitens, nec non fretus pede dextro,
Burkiadem terræ immanem applicat, insuper ipsum
Ridet anhelantem dura ad discrimina casus.
Perque vices trinas minor ex certamine semper
Burkius excessit, nec dextram tollere contra,
Vixque oculum est ausus; quin certi protinus omnes
Uno ore exclamant, cuinam prætendere palmam
Et dubitemus adhuc? dum clamant, Burkius ultro
Efferus ecce iterum in pugnam ruit omnis, et ingens
Mole sua in terram gravis incidit, adstat amicus
Suadet et adjutor sævo cessare duello,
Semper inæquali, et cedendo victus abire.
Nondum animo domitus, negat hic, longeque recusat,
Extremasque vices pugnæ integrat, et sibi fidens
Os offert Pullo incautum; sub pondere dextræ
Contusæ resonant nares, torrente sonoro
It sanguis, conduntur lumina, et effugit omnis,
Aut omnem fugisse putes, evanida vita.
Hic finis Burki in præsens, hic exitus illum
Hac vice devictum agnoscit, Pulloque minorem.
Vulneribus lotis, delcto stigmate vultus.
Et cute curata, forsan te Pulle domabit;
Plus æquo ne victor ovans tua cornua tollas,
Aut nimium tibi mens elata superbiat, oro.
ΣΤΕΦΑΝΟΝ ΣΤΕΦΑΝΩΙ ΣΤΕΦΑΝΩΣΑΣ. V. P.†

* Melissus is celebrated by Pindar in two odes, 3d and 4th of the Isthmian.

† V. P. may stand for Victoria Pugilistica, Victor Pearcius, Versus Paræmiacus, or any thing else that the reader chooses.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Philosophical Grammar.

Mr. EDITOR,

Those who have applied their minds to that curious and instructive study, which seems to unite the abstractions of metaphysics with the plainest and most obvious phenomena collected from experience, I mean the study of universal or philosophical grammar, must be convinced that the method suggested by Mr. Horne Tooke, is the only one which can ever place the science on a solid foundation. He has pursued strictly and faithfully that system of reasoning by induction from facts, of which Bacon sketched the project, and Newton applied the principles. As the laws of motion are no more than the history of certain facts, which invariably occur under similar circumstances, in all the cases which fall within our observation, so the general laws of language may in time be deduced from the history of that process, which the mind has adopted in all countries, as the means of communicating its conceptions. The instances contained in that admirable treatise, are confined to the languages immediately connected with our own;—but the general principles of the work, must derive great additional support from instances of the same nature in other languages. Accordingly we find, wherever we make the enquiry, that the strictest conformity exists in the practice of nations, which could have had no connection with each other, and could only have adopted the same method in forming their language, because the common principles of reason are the same in all. The accuracy with which the author has stated his facts, is not less remarkable than the justness with which he has deduced his inferences; the changes he has stated in the Saxon, are often exactly correspondent to what we may observe in the Greek; and the mutual agreement of particular instances, is the strongest confirmation of the general rule. Etymology is thus rescued from fanciful speculation and dogmatical pedantry, and placed under the protection of unerring experience; and the more we examine, the more shall we acknowledge the justice of the punning compliment, paid by one of the greatest men of the age, to the Εκτα Πτεροεντα,

Ως ας' ἐφωνησε τον δ' ΑΠΤΕΡΟΣ ικελτο μυθος.

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The preposition "toward" is derived from the verb "to ward," which originally signifies to look at, but afterwards, as Mr. Tooke observes, was figuratively used to express the idea of protecting. There is a common phrase—"look to it," for take care of it, which precisely accords with this remark. The latin verb *tueor*, has the same double sense, of guarding and simply looking at. In the former it is universally known; and though the latter is a less common application, yet we find it distinct and unequivocal, in the line where Virgil says of Dido, that she was weary of looking on the sky:

——"tædet cœli convexa *tueri*.

Since, says Mr. T. is an abbreviation of *seen as*. Now let us see how we should translate the word into Greek. The first synonime that presents itself in that language is σησιδεν, which cannot but come from σι and σιδω video, and means "on the sight of," or in other words, "Seen as."—One of the two senses of the word "but," or rather one of the two words which are spelt in the same manner, is derived from the Saxon Boran, to *boot*, to *add*, and means the same as *and*. There is great reason to suppose that the Greek particle δε, which is uniformly rendered by our "but," is nothing more than the imperative of δεω, to join, of which the signification is exactly the same.—Again, a corrupt use of the same word in its other sense is animadverted on. I saw BUT two; it should be, I saw *not but* two. The same fault may be found (among other instances) in the Septuagint translation of the second book of Kings, chap. 17. ver. 3. Πλην ψυχην ινος ανδρος συ ζητεις, κ. τ. λ. You seek (not) *but* one man's life, &c.—A conjecture is advanced, at first sight somewhat paradoxical, in the 2d. edition of the Diversions of Purley, that the word "longing," as applied to "*desire*," may have arisen from the idea of our stretching, or *lengthening* ourselves, towards the object of our wishes. The Greek word Ορεξις has both meanings, and Philip is described by Demosthenes to be αιει τυ πλειονος ορεγομενος, ever *stretching* himself after more. These are a very few instances, out of a great variety that might be brought, of the coincidence between the deflexions of meaning which have pursued the same work in other languages, and those which Mr. Tooke has traced in the Saxon and northern idioms of Europe.

There is another part of language which has always struck me as particularly curious, and to which I believe no attention has been paid. I mean the magic of particular terminations. A word will entirely change its nature, will express an abstract instead of a concrete quality, by the addition of some common ending, *ness*, in English, *itas* in Latin, &c. How do these combinations acquire this virtue? It will be no answer to say that all language is the creature of arbitrary convention, which might give what meaning it pleased to particular scraps of words, as well as to complete words. This arbitrary convention has always followed, and not led, the custom which had stamped a value on current sounds, which first received their meaning from the frequency of individual use. No common council of mankind, ever met to agree that combinations insensible in themselves should have a particular force, when united in a particular manner to intelligible words. The combinations must have had a certain meaning, before they could be so applied. Now it is well known that our termination *ness* means *head: Sheerness* is the *head of the shire*, the most prominent part of the county. *Hardiness*, *lustiness*, &c. are, *hardihead*, *lustihead*, &c. as we find them in the old writers, or *hardihood*, *lustihood*, &c. as they would be written now. *Niss*, the termination which converts German adjectives into substantives, is evidently the same word as the former; and *heit*, which performs the same service in the Dutch language, cannot be distinguished from the latter.

Now, Sir, a process somewhat similar to this, must have prevailed in other languages. And I have been sometimes tempted to think that the Latin words which end in *ities*, are formed from the same idea as that expressed by *ness*, by combination of the adjective with *acies*, the *point*, the most striking or prominent part, in short the head. If this were the case, both parts of the word *dur-ities* (for example) would be literally translated into our English noun *hardness*.

A more common termination for Latin substantives formed from adjectives and expressing qualities is *itas*; in attempting to account for which I am aware that my theory rests upon mere conjecture, and may be thought to partake of that fantastic character which has so often distinguished speculations on language. But it appears natural to convert an adjective into a substantive by uniting the former with some very general and obvious quality in which almost all substances may be supposed to participate. Such a quality will perhaps most commonly have a physical existence, as in the instances already suggested of *head* and *acies*. But there are qualities of a metaphysical nature still more universally inherent in all existing things, and which might therefore be selected with even greater propriety. One of the foremost of these is the idea of their having existed, or what we call *age*, in Latin *ætas*. Thus *æterna ætas* would come to represent eternity. *Verus* is an epithet, i. e. it signifies a quality considered as belonging to an individual: when the old Romans wished to generalise it, they united it to a general quality belonging to all substances, and *vera ætas*, or *veritas*, became the sign of abstract truth. In *vari-etas*, *soci-etas* and the like, the termination approaches still more nearly to ætas; and though the Etonians will never allow the supposition that the stubborn diphthong should be lost in *itas* and *etas*, yet they must admit that their favourite *quantity* has been often exposed to outrages still more severe. In the present instance it may have resulted from that propensity to make words most commonly in use, consist alternately of long and short syllables, which among the ancients often produced involuntary iambics, and still more frequently betrays the English into blank verse as smooth as tragedy.

This conjecture about ætas may perhaps be thought to derive some plausibility from our use of *age* in a similar sense—*surplusage*, *cordage*, *package*, &c. The Greeks made ελευθερον ημαρ stand for liberty, and we all member Homer's celebrated line quoted by Longinus:

Ημισυ γαρ τ' αρετης αποαινυται δουλιον ημαρ.

The last two words of which, the time of slavery, or the slavish age, are put for slavery in the abstract

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Mentum is another common termination, and has the same force as *men, minis.* Testa*mentum*, testa*men*, testa*minis*. There is an irregular verb in our grammar called com-*miniscor*, (of course originally *miniscor*) of which the participle is com-*mentum*. It is translated *to devise*. *Mens, mentis*, is the mind; the source of all our devices, conceptions, and inventions. The nature and degree of relationship among these words are above my ingenuity to trace; but surely there is a family likeness strong enough to serve at least as a presumptive proof of their affinity.

Mr. Tooke has often observed upon the anomalous nature of the adverb. And the most devoted follower of grammatical rules would find it extremely difficult so to define an adverb as to distinguish it in all cases from the adjective. The common people say, "he acted very *noble*;" "he walked very *grand*." And the most refined might remark, that he was drest *fine* or *finely*, she looked *beautiful* or *beautifully* without any impeachment on the accuracy of the phrase. Most of our adverbs are made by the addition of *ly*, like; and it might be difficult to refer the words, godlike, likely, goodly, masterly, ghastly, &c. to either species. If they are adjectives, how are they to be converted into adverbs? To avoid the cacophony of *likelyly*, &c. we periphrastically say, that a man acted in a friendly *way*.—The Latin adverb is most commonly formed by adding *iter*. Flens quam familiar*iter*!—Weeping in how feeling a *way*! And it is remarkable that *iter* is only added to those adjectives that end in *is*, and more easily coalesce with the following vowel.

These chimerical conjectures may suggest facts incompatible with their justice which would destroy them, or other facts of a concurrent nature, which would be their best confirmation. The subject of language is one of the most extraordinary which can engage our attention: it calls forth the most subtle operations of the mind, yet the vulgar are in full possession of it: its use is perfectly understood; of its origin we are almost wholly ignorant. It is like the principles of trade, which we are all in the daily habit of applying to our immediate necessities, while the most acute among us can hardly comprehend them in the abstract. CINCINNATUS.

Anti-Fluellen's Reply to E. (*respecting Shakspeare's Hamlet.*)

Mr. EDITOR,

Your Number for December the 16th 1803, has only lately fallen into my hands, and I have read your Correspondent E's "Observations on Mr. Plumptre's Hypothesis respecting Shakspeare's Hamlet." I read it "*again*;" and *without* reading it "*again*," I am at "*no* loss determine that it is an ironical ridicule of such hypotheses," with a spice of the old pleasantry of "honest Fluellen, and his comparison of Alexander and Henry the Fifth." But it seems, from Mr. P's appendix, p. 45, that even the captain's cudgel could not prevail on him to submit and swallow the leek. Your correspondent E, however, returns to the charge "full of jests, and gypes, and knaveries, and mocks," and wishes to prevail upon your readers to believe, that what Mr. P. calls "the *last*" and a "*trifling* circumstance," (see observations on Hamlet, p. 30) I mean that of the queen dying by poison, and also the mention of the "brazen cannon," are the main arguments on which the hypothesis rests. If these, which Mr. P. considers as merely the ornaments put on after the building is erected, were placed as the foundation stones, I should certainly consider the superstructure as very frail indeed, and would almost exclaim with E "*what* cannot be proved to mean *any thing*?" But it is from the general resemblance of the two stories, and from the alterations, when any are introduced, being for the most part to bring them nearer together, and upon a variety of marked and indisputable coincidences, that the hypothesis rests. I am free to acknowledge myself to have been, from the first, a believer in the hypothesis; and I am not willing to be so easily laughed out of what I consider as a valuable elucidation of one of Shakspeare's plays.

Your Correspondent E. D. in your Number for Nov. the 16th 1803, has given a general sketch of the argument; and for the information of your readers, who may not have seen the pamphlets in question, I will beg leave farther to state the very remarkable account of the murder of the late king in Hamlet; and shew, that there is scarcely a circumstance which has not its parallel, either literal or figurative, in the history of Lord Darnley and Mary Queen of Scots.

"'Tis given out, that, *sleeping in my orchard**
A *serpent* stung me; so the whole ear of Denmark
Is, by a *forged* process of my death,
Rankly abused: but know, thou noble youth,
The serpent that did sting thy father's life
Now wears his crown.
——— that incestuous, that *adulterate* beast,
With witchcraft of his wit, with traitorous gifts,
——————— won to his shameful lust
The will of my most seeming-virtuous queen:
O Hamlet, what a falling off was there!
From me, whose love was of that dignity,
That it went hand in hand even with the vow
I made to her in marriage; and *to decline*
Upon a wretch, whose natural gifts were poor
To those of mine!
Sleeping within mine orchard,
My custom always of the afternoon,
Upon my secure hour thy uncle stole,
With juice of cursed hebenon in a vial,
And in the porches of mine ears did pour
The *leperous distilment*; whose effect
Holds such an enmity with blood of man,
That *swift* as quicksilver, it courses through
The natural gates and alleys of the body,
And, with a sudden vigour, it doth posset
And curd, like eager droppings into milk,
The thin and wholesome blood: so did it mine;
And *a most instant tetter bark'd about,*
Most lazar like, with vile and loathsome crust
All my smooth body.
Thus was I, *sleeping*, by a brother's hand,
Of life, of crown, of Queen, at once dispatch'd;
Cut off even in the blossom of my sin,
Unhousell'd, unanointed, unaneal'd;
No reckoning made, but *sent to my account*

* *Orchard,* for GARDEN, (says Mr. Steevens.) So in Romeo and Juliet:

The orchard walls are high, and hard to climb.

* From Hort-yard, from the Latin Hortus, a garden.

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With all my imperfections on my head:
O horrible! O horrible! most horrible!" Act I. Sc. 5.

So much for Hamlet. Now for the history.

"Some time before the death of Lord Darnley, he was seized with a very dangerous and violent distemper, which was imagined to be the effect of *poison*;† he however got the better of it. The manner of his death was mysterious: the house in which he lodged was blown up *at night* with gunpowder, and his body was found lying in an adjacent *garden*, untouched by fire, and with no bruise or mark of violence about him." Observations, p. 15.

When Mary was brought prisoner to Edinburgh, after her surrender to the rebels at Carberry-hill, Malvill says, "the common people cried out against her at the windows and stairs. Others again evidenced their malice in setting up a banner or ensign, whereupon the king was painted *lying dead under a tree*," and the young prince upon his knees praying, "Judge and revenge my cause, O Lord." Tytler's Inquiry, Vol. II. p. 173.

"Revenge this foul and most unnatural murder." *Hamlet.*

In a letter of Mr. P.'s in the European Magazine for April 1799, on this subject, he quotes Dr. Robertson, vol. i. p. 449, who says, on the authority of Crawford, "several suspected persons were seized, captain Blackadder and three‡ others were condemned and executed; but no discovery of importance was made. If we believe some historians, they were convicted on sufficient evidence. If we give credit to others, their sentence was unjust, and they denied with their latest breath any knowledge of the crime for which they suffered." Is not this, with the name of Black *Adder*, alluded to in

"Its being *given out* that a *serpent* stung him?"

in the *forged* process of his death, and in

"The serpent, that did sting thy father's life,
Now wears his crown?"

With respect to the term "*adulterate* beast," in Hamlet, no mention is made of any illicit connection before marriage. But Bothwell was openly accused of *adultery*.

The contrast of the "natural gifts" of the two Kings is pointed, and does not seem consistent with the other circumstances in the play.

"Claudius was younger than Hamlet's father, that, unless he was deformed, (and it does not appear that he was) having youth in his favour, the contrast could not be so very great. Old Hamlet had a son thirty years of age at this time, and other passages in the play, lead us to suppose that the King and Queen were certainly past the prime of life, not to say old.

"Lord D. was the handsomest young man in the kingdom. Bothwell was twenty years older than Mary, and is represented by the historians of that time as an ugly man." Observations, p. 26.

In the same manner the King's speaking of his having been taken off "in the *blossom* of his sin," seems incompatible with the ideas we have of his *age* and good qualities, not to say virtues; but it is most truly applicable to Lord D. who was murdered in the 21st year of his age. Observations, p. 30.

Bothwell, it may be added, was indicted for "the cruel and *horrid* murder of the most excellent, most high, and most mighty prince the King, the late most dear spouse of the Queen's Majesty, our sovereign lady, &c. "*as he was taking his rest*, &c." and was by him "killed *traiterously* and cruelly, wilfully, and by premeditated felony." State Trials.

These resemblances will be strengthened by a few other passages from different parts of the play; particularly the directions for the dumb shew in the play scene. Act III. Sc. 2.

"Enter a King and a Queen, very lovingly; the Queen embracing him, and he her. She kneels, and makes shew of protestation unto him. He takes her up, and declines his head upon her neck: lays him down upon a bank of flowers; she *seeing him asleep, leaves him.*" And again:

"Sleep rock thy brain:
And never come mischance betwixt us twain."

Mr. Tytler, in his Inquiry, Vol. II. p. 80. Commenting on Dr. Robertson's account of this transaction, says:

"She leads her husband, the destined victim to the house of slaughter; she attends him with the most assiduous care. She was seldom, says our author, from him through the day; she slept several nights in the chamber under his apartment. The very night of his death, she passed several hours with him, she affectionately kissed him at parting, and taking a ring from her finger, she put it on his. And the scene being now prepared, *horresco referens*, she leaves him to his fate; leaves him in the hands of his bloody executioners!"

In a letter on this subject in the European Magazine, for March 1799, the following very remarkable particular is pointed out, a farther allusion to "the very *day of the week* on which the murder was perpetrated, mentioned by Hamlet, though in an indirect manner. And he could not well be more explicit, without fixing it beyond a doubt to Mary's story."

"In Act II. Sc. 2, where Hamlet is with Rosencrantz and Guildenstern, occasionally throwing in his wild flights and *insinuations concerning the murder*, his situation in the court, and the business he has in hand towards his "uncle-father and aunt-mother," he sees Polonius, and says he is coming to tell him of the players, and determines to play him off; and, that he may not give him a clue to his information, he turns to them in a grave manner, and says, "You say right, Sir; on MONDAY *morning*; 'twas then indeed." Dr. Robertson, Vol. I. p. 411, says, "on *Sunday* the ninth of February, about 11 at night, the Queen left the Kirk of Field, in order to be present at a masque in the palace. At two *next morning* (MONDAY) the house in which the King lay was blown up with gunpowder."

"The curse, which the player Queen invokes upon herself, should she marry again after the de

† Dr. Robertson (in his History of Scotland, Vol. i. p. 405.) speaking of the illness of Lord Darnley a short time before his death, and that it was imputed to the effects of *poison*; adds in a note, "Buchanan and Knox are positive that the King had been poisoned. They mention the black and *putrid pustules which broke out all over his body*." Buchanan's words are, "blew pustules arose all over his body, with so much pain and torment, that there was little hopes of his life." He says before, "the poison wrought *sooner*, than those who gave it supposed it would." See Mr. P.'s Appendix, p. 31.

‡ In the dumb shew of the play, we have this number mentioned. "The prisoner, with some two or *three* mutes." And the confederacy of Murray, Morton and Lethington, were in fact the instigators of Bothwell to the murder.

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of her first husband, is exactly what befell Mary on that occasion:

"Nor earth to me give food, nor heaven light!
Sport and repose lock from me, day, and night!
To desperation turn my trust and hope!
An anchor's cheer in *prison* be my scope!
Each opposite, that blanks the face of joy,
Meet what I would have well, and it destroy!
Both *here*, and *hence*, *pursue me lasting strife*,
If, *once a widow, ever I be wife*. Act. 3. Sc. 2.

This is not the usual strain of a poet writing from his own general ideas of what a Queen would think to be the worst that could befall her. But of an imagination fixed to one particular object, and describing that. The word *prison* is very remarkable."
Appendix, p. 53.

These, Sir, are the kind of resemblances upon which Mr. P. rests his hypothesis; and, in my estimation, they are very strong. And to expect that the two stories, and every particular in the play are to correspond with the history of Mary, in order to establish the hypothesis, is neither reasonable, nor what experience in other cases at all give us authority to expect. Mr. P. in his Appendix. p. 3, &c. has given us an account of some "dramas which *professedly* have a reference to the occurrences and characters of the times in which they were written, and we find, that it is not the way with dramatists to adhere very minutely to the circumstances attached to the history or character to which they wish to allude; but introduce a few striking features to constitute the likeness."

After instancing several plays, Mr. P. adds, "these are sufficient to shew the manner in which authors dramatise particular characters and events, and the impression they make on an audience or a reader."

"When a story occurs to an author, parallel, even in a few circumstances, to one of modern times, which he wishes to dramatise, he avails himself of it, and introduces, sometimes only a few, sometimes more, circumstances to adapt it to his second design; while the audience, on their part, "give up the reigns of their imagination into his hands," are carried along with him, and give their approbation and sanction to the likeness. But, where the story is too barren of circumstances, or he wishes it to bear more upon his second design, or to introduce any particular incident or circumstance attached to his modern characters, he departs from his original, and inserts circumstances and incidents of his own. In doing this, particularly if he is an author who does not greatly study correctness, we are not to be surprized, if, whilst his imagination is at work upon two, and in some respects different stories, that he should sometimes fall into mistakes and inconsistencies: in following his second design, he departs in some measure, and perhaps involuntarily, from his first. This is what, I think, we should constantly keep in mind, in considering the present play. Inconsistencies there certainly are in it, which, by my hypothesis, and keeping the two stories in mind, are in my judgment, plausibly, and surely very probably, accounted for; it is but reasonable then to suppose the hypothesis to be true And if there are sufficient characteristics to fix a resemblance, we are not to be surprized that there are not more." P. 9. 10.

In concluding this argument the words of an able critic (Bp. Hurd in his Introduction to the study of the Prophecies. p. 120) may be applied, with little alteration and with considerable effect. "On the whole, the general evidence for the truth of *this hypothesis*, as resulting from the *coincidences of the two stories*, though possibly not THAT which some may wish or expect, is yet apparently very considerable. *Some* coincidences might fall out by accident; and *more* might be imagined. But when *so many* and *such* are brought together and compared, it becomes ridiculous (because the effect is in no degree proportioned to the cause) to say of such coincidences, that they are the creatures of FANCY, or could have been the work of CHANCE."

Your correspondent E. D. attributes the slow progress which Mr. P.'s hypothesis has made in gaining credit, either to the diffidence of the author or the jealousies of his opponents. I am far from intending to impute to Mr. P. a want of diffidence in his manner of bringing forward his hypothesis. But perhaps if he could have repressed the ambition (and that perhaps a laudable one) almost inseparable from a young author, and brought out his pamphlet without any name to it, it might have had a fairer chance of making its way in the world. An *anonymous* author *might* be a *great* one; but it was scarcely to be expected, that those who had grown grey in the labours of commenting, should submit to be informed by a novice in the garden of criticism.

"If in the course of our enquiries (said the late Bp. Hallifax, in his sermon on Eccles. I. 18. preached before the University of Camb. in the year 1765) we have happily hit on any new invention, which from its apparent utility we wish to communicate to the public, our arguments, if addressed to the many, will not be attended to; or will not be understood, if we confine ourselves to the few, who are judges of our proper worth, their jealousy or their malignity will prompt them to envy us the merit of the discovery, and to defraud us of our just praise. Thus with one set of men, the scholar will be treated as a stranger; by another, he will be suspected as an enemy: minds inferior to his own will not comprehend his reasoning; his equals and his superiors will perversely shut their eyes and not suffer themselves to see and be convinced by it; whilst a third sort, immersed in the gratifications of sense, and habituated to a state of indolence and inactivity, will never think it of importance enough to be regarded, and will implicitly resign their understandings to be directed by the crowd."

I am, Sir, your humble Servant,
ANTI-FLUELLEN.

Feb, 29, 1804.

P. S. Your correspondent E. objects to E. D.'s argument of Shakspeare having altered the proverb from "galled horse" to "galled jade," to make it apply to Mary; as he says "the appellation of jade for a worthless woman, was posterior to the time of Shakspeare," and refers to Minshew, to shew that he has no such meaning for it. But I apprehend in this case, that Shakspeare himself is *as good* authority as Min-

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shew, and though Shakspeare often uses jade as applied to the male, yet he has also applied it to a woman. Launce, in the Two Gentlemen of Verona, Act. 3. Sc. 1. giving an account of the virtues of his mistress, says "Imprimis, she can fetch and carry. Why a horse can do no more: nay, a horse cannot fetch, but only carry; therefore, is she better than a *jade*," I think with an evident allusion to the present vulgar acceptation of the word.

MANNERS.

Mr. Editor,

AS I have been a subscriber and constant reader of your Journal since its commencement, I flatter myself I have a right to give my opinion of its contents with every possible degree of freedom, although I hope I shall always speak of your labours with decent respect.—In a word, then, Sir, I must own that I am better pleased with the critical, literary and political departments of your Journal, than with that which embraces for its object the manners and morals of the age, and my reason is, that, in my humble opinion, when you are disposed to be critical, literary or political, you abide by the best established laws and rules of those respective sciences, but when you descend, or condescend to consider matters in a moral light, you seem guided by a bunch of old prejudices, fitter for old women and parsons, than for men of liberal sentiments, living in a liberal, and most brilliantly enlightened age, an age enlightened not only by the sun of sublime truth, but by the variegated lamps of the new philosophy, and decorated by the transparencies of modern *apologies* and excuses.

Need I quote examples of your *low* way of thinking in such matters? It is too palpable. Yet that I may not seem to deal in generals, I shall only remind you, that like other persons who are still blinded and blinking through the prejudices of education, you persist in considering duels, rapes, elopements, crim. cons. &c. as *sins*, or to speak more politely as *crimes*; and pursuing this glimmering vista of your benighted morals, you infer that the frequency of the said incidents is a proof of the decline of public virtue, or to use your favourite phrase, and the favourite phrase of the aforesaid old women and parsons—*the degeneracy of the age*.

Now, Sir, mark "how a plain tale shall set you down." I hope you will not deny that every sentiment, and every opinion, and every event may be viewed in two ways, if not in more; and that all created objects are born with a certain mixture of the *pro* and *con*. I hope also, you will allow that men of liberal minds and who are bent on *free enquiry*, may have the liberty to change their opinions, and I sincerely pray that you will not deny that one story may be very good until another is told. You will also be pleased to allow the truth of that proverb which says, "many men many minds," and I should be glad to know what arguments you can advance to overthrow another excellent position, that "what is one man's meat may be another man's poison."

Having laid down these premises, which I consider as equally unanswerable with the axioms of Euclid, and as easily demonstrable as any of his propositions, I proceed to inform you that your moral writers have hitherto fallen into a lamentable mistake by considering those little incidents before mentioned, as sins or crimes, which are in fact nothing more or less, than PUBLIC AMUSEMENTS, little pieces occasionally got up (to use theatrical language) for the gratification of public curiosity, and the amusement and diversion of those minds which might otherwise be injured by the gloom of religious principles, I beg pardon, I mean prejudices; or perhaps rendered melancholy by the prospect of national affairs. Now, Sir, if your moral writers will for a moment condescend to view matters in this light, they will find the film and scales drop off their eyes, and they will in future see duels, elopements, crim. cons. &c. in that pleasing and amusing light which fascinates, while it gratifies curiosity, and which introduces that liberal way of thinking in such matters, that converts black into white, and renders even our crimes (as they used to be called) a source of much amusement and entertainment.

That this *is* the way in which such events are considered, will appear most clearly, if you will only follow a duellist, for example, from the challenge to the coffin, or a crim. con. from the post-chaise to the country inn. What do these things amount to? A long and elegantly penned account in the papers, richly ornamented with the *honour* of the gentleman, and admirably set off by the *beauty* and accomplishments of the lady. Well—what follows? all the town talks about it—it enlivens conversation—a dozen witticisms and puns are discharged every day from the newspapers—the duellist is sent to his long home—the lady brings evidence to prove the impossibility of ravishing the willing mind—and what next? Apologetic paragraphs and letters, vindicating the honour of a madman, and the chastity of a strumpet! All very amusing still—and what else but amusement follows? Are new laws made, or old laws executed? No—even juries are told to respect the prejudices which are found to be opposite to the laws of God and Man—and grave apologists collect all the virtues under the sun to decorate the hearse of a man who was a disgrace to his rank, and a pest to society, and who rushed into the presence of his Maker—*for a bet!*

I beg pardon, however, Mr. Editor; I perceive I am running into the very style and sentiments I wish to condemn, but you must allow something for the influence of bad example, and my having been so constant a reader of your moralities. To return then to my subject—I say, that as such events have no other effect on the public than to furnish small talk and jokes, or to produce laboured apologies and extenuations, I have a right to consider them as mere amusements got up for the public at a time when their minds may droop, or become melancholy, and I do not know that our theatrical managers themselves can produce *their* pieces in a more orderly, or opportune way. Every month produces something of the kind, which *runs* a certain number of days and nights, and then is elbowed out of public attention.

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by some new duel—some new elopement—some new crim. con. more attractive or more splendid than the former, because perhaps more foolish, or more fatal. And again I ask, what effect is produced? except the overflow of conversation and the production of jests and witticisms? Are the laws enforced? Is politeness encreased? Terror produced? Reformation begun? If I were to say *yes*, ten thousand ladies and gentlemen would laugh in my face.

As to the parties concerned, who furnish this amusement, if you ask them what they meant, whether to commit a crime, or to injure public morals by example, or any other foolish question which *prejudiced* persons or parsons might ask, they will candidly answer, no—"We had no such meaning—as to crimes, we know nothing about them; the distinctions between virtue and vice may perhaps have been pointed out to us, but they are too nice to be remembered, and as to public morals, we know not what they are or where they reside. *Our* friends never refuse their countenance to us, and the rest of the public may be d—d! It is rather impertinent to ask what we meant by such and such an action, but if you must know—it was for the ECLAT OF THE THING!"

Now, Sir, this being the true state of the question between the parties who act as principals in these little dramas, and the public who are the spectators, and clap or hiss according as the *thing* happens *to take*, I think we ought to lose no time in legalizing such *theatres*, and at once crushing the foolish prejudices that still prevail in some weak minds, and especially among your moral writers. We have already granted a complete toleration to such amusements, but toleration is but a negative support. Some things yet require a kind of mask and disguise.—On Sundays, for example, ladies of ton must have *concerts* to drown the noise of the card-tables, and the givers and receivers of challenges are liable to be insulted by justices of the peace and Bow-street officers, which seems to be, by the bye, a very great infringement on the liberty of the subject. There are other obstructions which might be mentioned, and which prevent the scenery and decorations of these amusements from being prepared with so much skill and effect, as they undoubtedly would be, if the legislature could be prevailed on to sanction them by an act. A duel might then be advertised to take place on a certain day, "at the Theatre Royal, Kensington Gravel-Pits," and I have no doubt that an audience, equally numerous and brilliant would crowd to the spot? Why should we doubt it? Are not our boxing matches, which have ended in death more than once, attended by the most fashionable *audiences*, I was going to say—but at least *spectators*? And if duels happened to be more thinly attended, it would arise, not from the less demand for amusement, but because a duel is a piece so exceedingly short, that economists might grudge the trouble of sitting an hour or two waiting for that which rarely lasts a minute, besides the expence of paying at the rate of a guinea a pop.

As to the mode of legalizing these matters, I shall not presume to offer my advice. It might be done, perhaps, by way of licence, and revive the old maxim "private vices, public benefits." But in whatever way it is done, the opinions of those who take upon them to direct public opinion, seem to be in favour of it. Duellists and seducers are held in high reputation, and discountenanced in no society; and while this is the case, why should their characters be sported with by writers of sermons and essays?

I submit these considerations, Mr. Editor, to you, and I hope some of your readers will bestow attention on them, and I shall be happy, in conjunction with them, to be the blessed instrument of bringing this new system to perfection.

I am, Sir, Yours
TRAVESTY.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Coalitions.

PARTIES have long made a figure in modern history. Accordingly we have seen them considered by many authors, and have observed frequent attempts made to describe their nature, and to ascertain their causes and effects. The origin and proceedings of different parties, as of the Neri and Bianchi of Florence, of the Fregosi and Adorni of Genoa, of the Guelfs and Ghibbelines of Italy, of the Prasini and Veneti in the Greek empire, of the Whigs and Tories in modern England, and various others, have been collected from the accounts of historians; and from the review of these facts, general principles have been attempted to be deduced. We cannot say that the world is much the wiser for this speculation. And with regard to the practical part, the true end of every speculation, we are not probably qualified beyond our predecessors, nor more skilled to reap from party the advantages which may be made to flow from it, or to prevent the evils which it has a tendency to produce. Indeed party, though it is equally to be explained on the principles of human nature, with any other general appearance in human affairs, is not a subject which it is easy to reduce to scientific order. It is one of those circumstances which it is very difficult to persuade even wise men depends upon any thing but chance; or is more susceptible of explanation than the difference in heat or cold, dryness or moisture between this year and the last.

There is one species of transaction exhibited by parties, which deserves to form a chapter by itself, in the Histoire raisonnée of party: we mean coalitions. It has not as yet excited much attention as a subject of philosophical enquiry or regulation. The instances in which it has been exhibited to our view, have not been very numerous; and have been rather regarded as effects of the corruption or wisdom of individuals, than parts of a general subject, which deserved to be considered with any reference beyond the circumstances of the present moment. Thus the persons who either blamed or approved of the union formed by Mr. Fox and Lord North, at the end of the American war, grounded all their observations on preceding conduct, and the supposed situation and views of these individual characters; but never conceived that their opinions could be directed by any application of general principles. We do not pretend to treat the subject so deeply at this time, as to give it

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that form which to some it may seem incapable of receiving. But so much has lately been spoken about coalitions, that we are inclined to throw out the detached reflections which we have made upon the subject. And we think it will not be altogether useless to that part of our readers who have a turn for political enquiry, to have pointed out to them this matter as a fit subject for general reflection.

There must be a considerable contrariety between the uniting parties, to give propriety to the term *coalition*. Thus Mr. Fox and Lord North directly opposed one another, with regard to the American war, and all the important political principles which were involved in the question of its propriety or impropriety; and at times they conducted their opposition with considerable personal asperity. But to a union at this time between Mr. Pitt and Lord Grenville, for carrying on the present war, we should hardly give the name of a coalition.

Coalitions suppose not, in either party, a dereliction of the principles by which it has been distinguished. When one party goes over to another, with the full adoption of its principles, it is called a conversion with regard to the one set of principles, and an apostacy with regard to the other, but not a coalition. Thus we did not say that Mr. Burke formed a coalition with Mr. Pitt, when he went over to his side, on account of the French revolution, nor, when Mr. Pitt after he got into office, opposed and arraigned the proceedings which he had pursued while yet excluded from it, was he supposed to have formed a coalition with those who of old entertained the opinions which he now espoused.

Coalitions therefore, are unions, for effecting not general, but particular purposes. To effect general purposes requires an union of general principles: and when parties unite their general principles it is conversion, not coalition. A coalition may be formed for an object subservient to the interests of the uniting parties, or, more virtuously, for an object subservient to the interests of their common country. Thus Mr. Fox coalesced with Lord North for the purpose of driving from the seat of power a party of men who were equally hostile to both; and Aristides coalesced with Themistocles before the battle of Salamis to procure to his country a victory over the forces of Xerxes.

There are many celebrated instances in history of this laudable sort. Such was that of the Whigs and Tories in this country for effecting the revolution; on which occasion the Tories, by what might be denominated a temporary conversion, came entirely over to the Whigs. Such is that of the Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters in this country, to procure a repeal of the penal statutes.

The contests and dissentions of opposite parties being a great evil in a state, and one of the disadvantages attending a free government, it should seem that all coalitions, which imply a cesssation, for the time, of contests and dissentions, should be considered at first sight as happy events; and yet it happens in fact that they are always at first regarded with a suspicious and unfavourable eye. This is not an unjust sentiment. It is so difficult for opposite parties to find any point where they can meet without a clashing of their principles, that coalitions are almost always formed by a dereliction of some of the principles of one or both of the parties; and give sufficient proof that the leaders at least of the parties were not very much in earnest about considerations, with the importance of which they seemed to be most deeply impressed.

All political principles are certain views of public good, which are different to different men. Thus the ancient Tories in this country conceived it to be good to secure obedience to the monarch, at the risk of any danger to liberty from unqualified submission; on the other hand, the Whigs thought it was good to secure liberty against the encroachments of the monarch, notwithstanding any temporary disorders which the vindication of it might occasion. That certain evils might threaten the country from which the powers of two parties might be united to protect it, without any interference of their peculiar views of public good, is sufficiently evident. But as soon as this evil is repelled, it seems impossible that they can go on together. Because what is the business of statesmen, when their country is out of danger, but to contrive and execute schemes, for improving her policy, and the happiness of her inhabitants? But here the two parties are disposed to take different roads; and must either conspire together to abandon the task of improving their country, or must part company immediately. The sweets of power, however, which they share between them, and which neither perhaps can enjoy, when left by the other, make them unwilling to separate; and they are strongly tempted to make a tacit and disgraceful compact to sacrifice their views of national improvement to views of private interest. For this reason we are of opinion that a truly virtuous man will feel no small reluctance to enter into a coalition. It is a dangerous situation. He is afraid to commit his virtue to a trial, from which that of so few persons escapes. The prints of the feet of so many animals advancing to the lion's den, but of none returning, alarm him. An occasion may be presented, when it will appear to him so clearly, that he may serve his country by uniting his efforts to those of a party, whose principles he condemns, that he will not withhold them. But he will make his connection as slight as possible, and whenever the end is served, for which he formed that connection, he will immediately dissolve it.

A particular coalition, toward the formation of which it has been said that certain overtures have been made, has lately been the subject of much conversation. We have but few remarks to make upon it. Indeed we have no belief that it will ever happen. But a few reflections will serve to illustrate the subject, which we have here thought proper to bring before our readers.

The contrariety in the political principles of the two leading characters whom it is now proposed to bring together, will not be disputed. The general system of opinions, and of measures recommended and supported by the one during the whole course of his political life, has been as widely different from that

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system of opinions and of measures recommended and supported by the other during a similar period, as it is possible for any two systems to be, which are not inconsistent with the principles of the same government. The one has always laboured for the preservation of every practice, and of every statute which served to limit the power of the republican part of the government; and to increase or confirm that of the monarchical and aristocratical. This too he has done with a degree of vehemence beyond the ordinary rate of party spirit. The other great man, concerned in the supposed transaction, has with peculiar warmth and steadiness persisted in recommending the removal of things which disorder or weaken the action of the republican part of the government; and all the political opinions on which he declares his conduct is founded are those which assume the republican to be, both in justice and expedience, the fundamental and most important part of every government.

The French revolution gave a new aspect to the political behaviour of the two personages under consideration. It gave an opportunity to the patron of monarchical and aristocratical privileges, to raise his principles to a pitch of perfect extravagance, we had almost said absurdity; and inspired him with a degree of disapprobation and abhorrence for his antagonist, if we may draw any conclusion from his language and behaviour, which none but a criminal of the most rare and atrocious kind could deserve. The other gentleman continued long to view with a favourable eye transactions in France undoubtedly begun with a design to advance the happiness of the great order of the people, without injuring the happiness of any other order; and ascribed a great part of the miseries which attended those transactions to the conduct of the other personage and his party, and to that of the rulers in different parts of Europe, who as he represented joined the rulers in this country, in an unjust, and villainous interference with the sacred right of another country to manage its internal affairs as it pleased. These accusations, on the one side, that Mr. Fox was a jacobin, who wished to overturn the monarchical constitution of this country, that he himself might wade through blood, and over every constituted and venerable authority, to a Directorship or a Consulship in Great Britain; and on the other, that Lord Grenville and his party, wished by the blood and treasure of this country, not without a desire towards a similar system in itself, to establish anew the despotism in France, which crushed the lower orders, to maintain in ruinous privileges a pampered and useless nobility,—were thrown backwards and forwards with the utmost fury; and a degree of rancour and animosity prevailed, of which scarcely any parallel is to be found in history.

We do not think it an easy matter for two parties, or two individuals thus situated to form a coalition; and the motives ought not to be slight which should lead them to think of it.

The dangers of the present time, it is urged, ought to dispose all men, without regard to preceding differences, to unite for the defence of their country. We are threatened with the most trying conflict, which we ever had to sustain, and we are governed, it is said, by a set of men, altogether unqualified to direct our efforts. Surely in such a situation, little differences ought to be forgotten.

Were it perfectly clear that nothing but the union of Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville could save us, in the present, or in any other crisis, we should have no hesitation in recommending it; and we have no doubt that these two great men, be their differences as wide as they may, would most readily and cordially unite for such a purpose. Were it even perfectly clear that this union would save us more easily and certainly than any other expedient, we should have no hesitation in recommending it. But if we do not think the danger nearly so great as has been represented, being of opinion that the weakness of the present administration has been greatly exaggerated, and that the energy of the country itself, headed even by a weaker administration than the present, would be competent to its defence; and if we conceive that several other contrivances might be employed to obtain a strong administration, without this coalition; we cannot give our assent to so unnatural and extraordinary an association.

It is remarkable that with regard to that very particular, on account of which it is thought necessary that the two persons alluded to should unite, their sentiments must be as widely different, as in regard to any other point whatever. They unite to carry on the present war. Mr. Fox from the opinions which he has already delivered, must begin his administration by proposing terms of peace to put an end to it. Lord Grenville must consider any proposal of peace as accumulating the dangers and disgrace of the country. They come to variance then at the very outset, and must dissolve connection immediately.

Mr. Fox, we may be told, having seen the inveterate and ambitious disposition of France, may be at last convinced that it is necessary to humble her, before a peace, which will ensure our tranquillity, can be expected from her. It is impossible. Mr. Fox declared in the plainest and strongest language at the re-commencement of hostilities, that nothing had been done by France during the term of peace, which rendered it hopeless that the relations of amity might yet be upheld with her. He ridiculed the pretexts and motives of hostilities. And maintained that enough had not yet been done, to ward them off. If before the commencement of hostilities France had done nothing to render it impolitic or unreasonable to use efforts to maintain peace with her, undoubtedly she has done nothing since; and her warfare has been just as fair as ours. Every reason then which existed for making additional efforts for the maintenance of peace at the commencement of hostilities exists for making new efforts to obtain it now.

Lord Grenville, we are likewise told, has greatly softened, and moderated the notions with which he was transported, during the war against the French revolution; and might not be unwilling to give his assent to an experiment for the recovery of peace. This too we consider impossible, unless Lord Grenville be capable of forfeiting the strongest pledges which a man can give to the public. It was not the conduct of France merely, but the situation of France

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which made Lord Grenville condemn the peace concluded at Amiens. France had that preponderating strength, and was actuated by that disposition, which rendered it fatal for us to enter into peace with her, until her power was reduced. Her power now is greater than ever. One of the complaints against the peace of Amiens was, that it confirmed and encreased the power of France. And it is not the opinion of Lord Grenville that France has sunk in the scale, during the period of hostilities. Whatever reason then Lord Grenville could have for condemning the peace in the year 1802, of which Mr. Fox approved, he must have now for condemning any terms of peace, which it would be consistent for Mr. Fox to propose. A coalition therefore of these personages, for carrying on the present war, appears altogether impossible.

There may be another coalition however, to which equally strong objections do not apply; we mean a coalition between Mr. Fox and Mr. Addington. There is no such contrariety between any declared sentiments of Mr. Addington, and the sentiments of Mr. Fox. Mr. Addington has never been guilty of any personal abuse towards Mr. Fox; on the contrary by his candour and fairness, he extorted the praise of Mr. Fox at a time when that gentleman was scarcely less than coughed down, whenever he attempted to utter a word in the house of commons. In point of ability we should reckon Lord Hawkesbury, and other members of the present administration, just as good associates as Lord Grenville and his friends. And with regard to the present war a coincidence of sentiments might more easily be obtained between the present ministers and Mr. Fox. But there are objections to this union of no small importance.

Political History, from March 16, to April 1.

FOREIGN.

French Conspiracy.——The attention of the French government has for some weeks been almost wholly occupied by this object. Every person has been arrested whom either the public informers, or the more active fears of the First Consul have pointed out as objects of suspicion. *Georges*, the royalist chief, was apprehended in a cabriolet in the streets of Paris. The fate of Moreau and Pichegru has not yet been decided, by the latest accounts from the Continent. Moreau is said to have been removed to Vincennes as a place of greater security. Much concern for his fate has been testified throughout all France, and his wife has received visits of condolence from many persons of the first distinction at Paris, who in consequence have fallen into complete disgrace at the Thuilleries. Although the preparations for invading this country are carrying on with unremitting activity, and although it is still asserted that the First Consul intends to command them in person, yet it cannot be doubted that the discovery of this conspiracy has considerably disconcerted his plans, and that he will be far less willing than ever to quit his dominions or even his capital.

Arming of the Neutral Powers.—All the principal neutral powers of the Continent have for some time past been augmenting their forces. There is no reason to believe that any one of them adopts this precaution from a jealousy of Great-Britain; the overgrown power and immense armies of France are evidently the objects of their apprehension. Almost every man capable of bearing arms in Denmark is at present training to the use of them; and even the feeble administration of the Porte is making unwonted efforts to equip a fleet for the defence of the Morea. These two powers seem indeed to look upon themselves as in the most immediate danger from the designs of France. The Emperor of Germany is in the mean time collecting large bodies of troops on the frontiers of Italy and Swisserland; and Russia is arming with great activity both by sea and land. The support of Denmark and Turkey, and a resolution to give efficacy to their mediation for procuring a general peace to Europe, are looked upon as the objects of these powers. The recent encroachments of the French troops upon the neutrality of Naples, are said to have given great umbrage to the Emperor of Russia, who considers that kingdom as under his more immediate protection. His Neapolitan Majesty has resolved, in case of necessity, to commit himself again to the guardianship of the English fleet, and to retire to Palermo, where he is to reside, (till some fortunate change) with the King of Sardinia, another victim of French usurpation. The continental powers seem indeed sensibly to apprehend that the immense armaments of France, finding the invasion of Great Britain impracticable, must be diverted to some other object, and employed in overwhelming other nations, to prevent them from producing confusion and anarchy at home.

Goree.—By accounts received at Lloyd's, it appears that a French squadron from Cayenne, has taken the island of Goree on the coast of Africa. The command which this island has of the Gambia and Bonavista rivers will enable the enemy greatly to harass our African trade.

East Indies.—Admiral Linois' squadron, consisting of six frigates, after having refitted at the Isle of France, is said to have put to sea again, to cruize against our East India trade. The bad effects resulting from our giving up the Cape of Good Hope, now begin to be seen. Had we retained that station, we could without difficulty have completely scoured the whole navigation to the East Indies, and have intercepted every supply from Europe. It is well known that the Isle of France and the Mauritius are totally incapable not only of furnishing supplies to a fleet, but even of maintaining their own garrisons; and unless provisions and other necessaries be sent to them from the Cape of Good Hope or Europe, they could not possibly afford supplies to any cruizing squadron.—The Cape of Good Hope is by all accounts at present every way in our power: how long it will be so is extremely doubtful, as Admiral Hartsinck was by the last accounts in the Rio de Janeiro, waiting a favourable opportunity of escape.

DOMESTIC.

Conduct of the Admiralty.—On the 16th of March Mr. Pitt commenced his first direct attack on any part of the present administration. It was introduced in the form of a motion for certain papers; but he stated distinctly that it was his intention to de-

duce from these papers a charge of misconduct against the Admiralty. The chief points on which he insisted were, that small craft, similar to those of which the French flotilla is composed, were the most proper force to oppose its attempts; and that the Admiralty deserved censure for not employing the merchants' yards to build ships of the line, while the king's yards were otherwise occupied in the time of war. In both these opinions he was opposed by the united voice of the most experienced seamen in the house. It seems to be the universal opinion of naval men, that large vessels are alone capable of acting with effect in the currents of the channel, and that close in with our coasts, in shallow water, the gunboats of the Sea Fencibles are well calculated to harass and destroy the less manageable vessels of the French flotilla. As to building ships of the line in the merchants' yards, all experienced seamen declare with one voice, that it is a mere job to enrich contractors. Ships so built have been almost universally found to be ill-constructed, unwholesome, and in constant want of the most expensive repairs, owing to the badness of the materials, and the carelessness of the workmen. The ministers refused the production of some of the papers moved for. The numbers of the minority on this occasion excited public attention. They amounted to 130, and the minister's majority was only 73. The strength of the minority however, was more apparent than real. Mr. Pitt and the Grenville party voted indeed on the same principle; but Mr. Fox and his friends, although they gave their vote for the production of the papers, did so on grounds diametrically opposite. They voted upon the general principle of the propriety of inquiry on all occasions, and they besides considered Lord St. Vincent's conduct as highly meritorious, and as certain to be the more applauded the more minutely it was examined.

The King's Recovery.—The restoration of his Majesty's health, so far as to enable him to resume the functions of government has diffused universal satisfaction, and dispelled those fears of confusion in the public business at a moment when it was most to be deprecated. The goodness of his Majesty's constitution and his regular habits promise that complete restoration of his health which is so ardently desired by a loyal people.

Volunteer Bill.—The Volunteer Bill has passed the House of Commons. Mr. Fox and the Windham party opposed the whole system as ineffectual. Mr. Pitt applauded the system, and employed himself in suggesting such amendments as he thought necessary to give it strength and vigour. We shall give a general view of its provisions when it shall have passed both houses and been completed.

Irish Militia.—On Monday, his Majesty by a Royal Message, acquainted both Houses of Parliament that a part of the Irish Militia had volunteered their services to Great Britain. This message was taken into consideration on Wednesday. On that occasion it was stated by the Secretary at War that it was the intention of government to introduce several new regulations for the augmentation of our regular forces: to suspend filling up the number of the Militia and Army of Reserve for a year, and by this means to destroy the competition with the recruiting for the regular service, which at present has raised the bounties to an enormous height, and has also introduced to an alarming degree the abominable practice of crimping. The number of effective troops for Great Britain and Ireland he stated at 192,000; and large additions are intended to the disposeable force. It is proposed to replace the 10,000 Irish Militia who have volunteered their services to Great Britain, by a new levy to the same amount on that establishment.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Cambridge.—The following are the subjects for the prizes given by the Representatives in Parliament for this University, for the present year:

Senior Batchelors.

Quid commodi, aut incommodi, e republica hominum nigrorum sive coloratorum, inter occidentales insulas nuper constituta, derivari queat?

Middle Batchelors.

Quibus modis, et gradibus, civitates jam florentes, paulatim labare, inclinare et occidere soleant?

Several workmen are now employed on Pembroke Leys, in laying out the ground for the scite of Downing college, the erection of which, it is expected, will be begun in the course of the ensuing summer.

The Rev. W. Gooch, of Cockfield, Suffolk, is appointed by the Board of Agriculture to write a new Report of the Husbandry of the county of Cambridge, and he is now taking a survey for that purpose.

The Emperor Alexander has ordered every work which treats of Mathematics in the English language to be translated into the Russian.

Academy of Teflis.—Nothing can afford higher satisfaction to the lovers of learning and the friends of civilization, than to observe the unequalled rapidity with which knowledge begins to be diffused throughout the vast dependencies of the Russian Empire. The following account of the establishment of a new academy at Teflis in Georgia, a country long devoted to ignorance, must afford real pleasure to our readers? Those who are acquainted with the situation of that country, will not be surprised that the benefits of instruction are still confined to the nobility.

"At the instance of prince Zinzianow, governor-general of Georgia, the emperor of Russia has been pleased to order the erection of a public school for the young nobility at Teflis, and has ordered to be applied for this purpose the yearly sum of 10,000 roubles out of the revenues arising from silk in that province. The following are the particulars of this institution.

"A school is to be established at Teflis, in which the course of instruction in the Georgian and Russian languages is to be divided into three classes. At the commencement twenty-five, and in three years fifty youths are to be educated free of expence.

"The division of the expenditure is as follows:

The Director is to have a house and	800 roubles.
A Russian teacher of the first class	500
A Georgian teacher	400
Two teachers of the second class 250 each	500
House-rent	300
Fuel and light	180
Two attendants	120
Total	2800
For the erection of a school-house	5000
	7800

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"The remaining 2200 roubles, which being paid in Bank-stock, are equivalent to 3740 roubles, are to be disposed of as follows:

Eight youths, who are yearly to be sent from this school to the University of Moscow, to have 250 roubles each ..	2000 roubles.
Expence of travelling from Mordok to Moscow	453
Annual cloathing to each of them 100 roubles.....	800
Books, paper, &c.....	400
Travelling expences.....	87
Total.....	3740

"The erection of the school-house will be completed in three years, when the 300 roubles for house-rent will be employed on other purposes for the benefit of the Institution. At that period also, the allowances of the scholars at Teflis, as well as those sent to Moscow, will be doubled. But of the remaining sum, among other things, 300 roubles are to be annually appropriated for the purchase of books, and thus the foundation will be laid by degrees of a public library at Teflis."

On the 15th of January the *Gymnasium* at St. Petersburg was consecrated. The ministers of public instruction, the members of the universities, with a vast assemblage of the nobility, the clergy, the military, and a variety of persons of distinction attended the ceremony. After mass professor *Terlaitsch* delivered a Russian, and professor *Kakolnick* a Latin, discourse. The 24th of January was appointed for the opening of the lectures. Professors have been appointed to the different classes, and the branches taught are mathematics, logic and metaphysics, natural philosophy, universal history, geography, chemistry, and physic, political economy, and the French and German languages, and drawing. Counsellor Rastowzow, has an annual salary of 2000 roubles.

Strasburg Academies.—The establishments of Literature at Strasburg, which had fallen into great decay in consequence of the French Revolution, begin at length not only to recover their former prosperity, but also to receive many accessions, which afford the happiest prospect for the diffusion of literature and science. The former Protestant University again begins to flourish, as the academy for the youth of the Augsburg Confession, and the professors appointed to it have already opened their several classes. The Protestant Gymnasium has at last recovered its former respectability. The *School of Health*, established for 17 departments, daily increases, since by its late organization it has been replenished by able men who give regular lectures on every branch of medicine and surgery: a vast number of medical students have of late flocked to it, not only from every quarter of the Republic, but also from foreign parts. The Central School remains till the Lyceum shall have been completely organized: the latter however will shortly be opened. A Roman Catholic seminary is also to be speedily erected. The French government has over and above engaged to our magistracy to establish here four schools, for pharmacy, jurisprudence, natural history, and drawing. The last is to be enriched by a collection of paintings, which are accounted master-pieces; part of them have already arrived from Paris. The Botanical garden, which was established by the French government for the *School of Health*, is soon to receive great additions.

University of Wilna.—This University has received a new proof of the favour and generosity of his Imperial Majesty of Russia. Besides the yearly sum allotted for its support, his Majesty has graciously presented it with an extraordinary donation of 70,000 roubles. Of this sum, 40,000 are to be appropriated to the erection of a clinical institution, the enlargement of their library, and the completion of their museum: and the remaining 30,000 to the establishment of certain schools within the district of the University. The greatest advantage to the University in particular, and to literature in general is expected from those encouragements held out by the royal bounty.

Coptic Coins.—The "*Academy of the Polite Arts, Antiquities*," &c. in Stockholm, is at present employed in scientific researches relative to a considerable number of Coptic coins, lately found in the vicinity of the castle of *Borgholm*, in the island of *Aland*. The last sitting of the Academy, held on the 1st November of last year, was opened by Mr. *Bergstedt*, with an elaborate and instructive speech on the Egyptian pyramids.

SCIENTIFIC.

Professor *Poschmann*, at St. Petersburgh, has invented an *Anemometer*, which he has presented to his Imperial majesty. With this Anemometer, not only the strength of the wind may be exactly measured, but by means of other instruments which are easily adjusted to it, such as a hygrometer, thermometer, and barometer, a variety of other physical experiments may be conducted with the greatest conveniency. This instrument stands on a hollow pillar of a pyramidal form, on one side of which are placed over each other two dial-plates with indexes or hands, the one of which belongs to the hygrometer and the other to the anemometer. It is fixed on an oblong quadrangular board, supported on four feet which again rest on a pedestal. Through the middle of the pillar a rod is passed, to the upper end of which a weather-cock is attached, and to the lower end an index standing on a wind-dial, which is furnished below with a magnetic needle, and points out the direction of the wind with the greatest exactness. On one side of the pedestal, in the middle of the outer extremity, a pillar stands with two rollers, between which a roller is passed on which the wind-board is fixed. This roller is at the further end provided with teeth or notches, by means of which a notched wheel, which is attached to the axle of the index of the Anemometer, is moved. Between the wind-board and the pyramidal pillar a spring passes, which acts constantly on the roller, in such a manner that the board, being moved by the current of the wind, strikes against the spring, which in its turn moves the roller; when by means of the notches in the end of the roller which act upon the wheel, the index communicating with it is made to point out the force of the wind. Between the pillars there are also four brass bars attached, which pass through notches in the extremity of the board, and are provided with two small rollers which serve to give uniformity to the impulses. On the opposite side of the wind-board, a board is attached to the pedestal, and on it the barometer and thermometer are placed. The advantage of this newly invented instrument consists chiefly in this, that the impulse by means of the board above-mentioned, is rendered at all times uniform and incapable of any variation; while the spring which passes between the board and the smaller pillar, prevents the variations of heat and cold from producing any perceptible difference. This spring is also so contrived as never to exhibit any perceptible change of elasticity; but always to act with the same impulse in proportion to the force of the wind.

Russian Expedition.—The Royal Academy of St. Petersburg have received letters dated the 25th of last October, at Santa Cruz, in the island of Teneriff, from their Correspondent *M. Von Krusenstern*, the Commander of the two Russian ships which have sailed on a voyage round the world. Their voyage from Falmouth to this place was extremely expeditious and prosperous; there was not one sick on board either of the ships, and the Russian sailors were chearful and active, and did their duty with vigour,

notwithstanding this is the first time that Russian vessels have sailed so far south. The Spanish governor had received the voyagers with the greatest politeness, and gave them the house where the inquisition holds its sittings for an astronomical observatory; he had besides used every endeavour to forward their letters by the speediest conveyance to Europe. On the 25th of October the ships had already taken on board a supply of water and wine, and were preparing to set sail the following day for Rio Janeiro in the Brazils, where they are to remain some weeks. On the voyage, in North lat. 37 40', and 3° 28' East long. from the first meridian, the expedition had an opportunity of observing a most remarkable meteor. On the 10th of October in the evening, they saw in the south-west a large fire-ball, which at the height of fifteen degrees took a direction completely horizontal towards the north-west when it burst. It had a very long tail, which was so bright, that the whole ship was for the space of a minute illuminated by it. The most remarkable circumstance, however, attending it, and which indeed is almost without a parallel, was the uncommon power of the luminous matter; as bright streaks continued visible in that quarter for upwards of an hour after the fire-ball had burst. *M. Von Krusenstern*, has communicated to the academy some interesting observations on the currents of the sea, which he had received instructions to make.

GALVANISM.—Professor *Aldini*, so well known for his galvanic experiments, has received from the First Consul a large golden medal, on the one side of which is a head of Bonaparte, and on the other a laurel crown with an inscription tending to encourage him in the prosecution of his scientific researches. It was accompanied by a very flattering letter from the minister *Chaptal*.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE.—One of the prize questions of the National Institute of France, we are willing to regard as a proof of the dissemination of liberal opinions. The question is, What influence the reformation by Luther has had upon the political situation of the different states of Europe, and on the progress of knowledge? The time for deciding on the merit of the different performances is past, and the prize has been declared to M. Ch. de Villers, the author of several philosophical, and literary works. We have not seen the performance, which is an object of great curiosity, as a sort of evidence of the public sentiments of the Institute on this important question.

The first class of the National Institute of France, has lately given notice, that the special committee appointed to inquire into the researches and discoveries, relative to electricity and Galvanism, made in the course of last year, has not thought proper to adjudge the prize, offered by the First Consul, and that in consequence thereof the prize is doubled for the next year, amounting then to 6000 francs.

According to another notice published by the above class for the physical and mathematical Sciences, the prize offered for the best memoir *on the pressure of water in motion*, will be adjudged in the sitting to be held in the month of Messidor of the 13th year, and that memoirs on the above prize-subject will be accepted until the 30th Ventose.

AMBER.—In October last, a countryman found near Schlappacken, in the Lithuanian part of East Prussia, about 12 German miles from the shores of the Baltic, a piece of raw amber, the extreme length of which amounts to 13½ inches, and the extreme breadth to 8½ inches. It contains 318 cubic inches, and weighs 18 pound 7½ ounces. This is the largest and heaviest piece of amber, which, as far as our information goes, has been found either on the sea-shore or in any inland province. The largest piece, formerly known, is in the Royal cabinet of natural history at Madrid and weighs about 8 pounds. By command of the King of Prussia, the above piece of amber, for which 3000 rix-dollars (about £600) were immediately offered has been purchased for government and deposited in the cabinet of minerals of the Board of Mines in Berlin.

STEREOTYPE.—*B. F. Reinhard* of Strasburgh, has obtained a patent for his discovery of printing music with stereotypes, in a style superior to engraved notes, and at a much less expence. Reinhard's stereotypes materially differ from those of Didot, especially in this respect, that the former makes use of a moveable matrix, which renders the process at once more simple and less expensive.

Mr. Churchman has made a discovery by which the angle of altitude, of declivity, and the perpendicular height of every hill are ascertained at a single view: as also the comparative height of all the different hills. He considers the being able to ascertain the exact shape of the surface of a country, as highly important in a military light.

METEOROLOGY.—Citizen Lamarc is at present intensely engaged in making meteorological observations. He thinks from several coincidences and facts which have already come under his view, that storms and tempests, which have hitherto appeared so disorderly and uncertain, may like the different eclipses, be reduced to the rules of calculation. Citizen Lamarc speaks with confidence of his discoveries in this respect to his private friends, but refuses to communicate any thing to the public, till repeated facts and observation shall have completely established or overthrown the edifice which he is building.

POLITICAL.

LIBELS.—The Russian government is forming an edict which has for its object the suppression of libels both against the state and against individuals, and also the entire suppression of obscene prints. Punishments proportionate to the offence, in some instances severe ones, are to be enacted against those who infringe this edict. To carry this decree into effect, a jury is to be appointed, which is to decide upon the offences of authors and booksellers against the provisions of the edict, and their judgment is to be without appeal.

LITERARY CENSORSHIP.—In the Canton of Friburg, an edict has been passed which authorises certain censors to have access to all public libraries, booksellers' shops, and reading rooms, as often as they think proper; and to prohibit the selling or lending out of all books, engravings and prints, which they judge to be of a pernicious tendency. All books are to be reckoned pernicious which attack religion and morality, and all engravings and prints which exhibit lewd and obscene representations, or which are calculated to turn religion into ridicule. Fathers, mothers, and heads of families, who shall put such pernicious things into the hands of their children or dependents, shall pay a fine of 100 florins to the censorship, besides being liable to a severer punishment by the magistrates.

The Members of the *Teylerian Theological Society* at Haarlem, have at their last meeting given out as a prize-question: "What success have the missions for the propagation of the true Christian religion had during the two last centuries? And what success may be expected in this respect from the active exertions of the present Missionary Societies?" The prize is the usual gold medal of the value of 400 florins. The essays, which may be written either in Dutch, Latin, French, or English, must be transmitted to the Teylerian Institution, before the 1st of December 1804. The prize will be adjudged in the beginning of April 1805.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa; in which is considered the Importance of the Cape of Good Hope as a Naval and Military Station, and in a Political and Commercial point of View; with a Statistical Sketch of the Colony. Vol. 2. By John Barrow, *Esq. London. Cadell and Davies.*

THE first volume of this work, which gave an account of the interior of southern Africa and the manners of the natives, has been some time before the public. The second volume is chiefly dedicated to the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, and the circumstances and character of the colonists. The disputes about the policy or impolicy of giving up the Cape of Good Hope at the peace of Amiens seem to have given rise to the present volume. The author loudly blames its restoration to the Dutch, and attributes this measure to the East India Directors; who, either from blindness to their own interests or a worse motive, affected to undervalue its importance; he then calls on the British government not to lose the present favourable opportunity of regaining this valuable possession. Such is the leading text of the book; and the various discussions, digressions, and descriptions to which this text gives rise form the contents of the work.

At the conclusion of the first chapter, Mr. Barrow gives us to understand that the volume before us cost him the labour only of *three months*. Whatever may be Mr. B's ideas on this subject, we can assure him that it in no degree excites our admiration to learn that an author should be able to *put together* a quarto of upwards of 400 pages in *three months*; but we should greatly admire the author who should produce a valuable and well-written book of the same bulk in *six* or even *twelve* months. We have seldom seen an announciation of the author's celerity in composition, at the commencement, augur any good to the subsequent parts of a work; and certainly, whatever may be our opinion of Mr. Barrow's talents and information, we cannot forbear remarking that if he had taken *three months* more to arrange and revise his work, he would have consulted better at least his literary reputation. The volume before us bears every mark of haste. The author, having his mind excited by the importance of the Cape of Good Hope and the necessity of recovering it to this country, evidently sat down to write a book without having fixed upon any plan. The first and second chapters bear the most compleat internal evidence of being composed in this desultory manner. By and by, indeed, as he proceeds in the work, the author begins to form more clear ideas of his object, and gradually to reduce them to method; till in the last chapter we are presented with a regular and very well arranged statistical account of the colony. Three months of revisal might have rendered the commencement of the work as distinct as the conclusion; although, indeed, if more matter were not introduced, the pruning of the digressions would have considerably reduced the size of the volume.—An analysis of the work will enable the public to determine whether in these strictures we have done injustice to Mr. Barrow.

In the first chapter Mr. B. sets out with the motives which induced him to undertake this work; and the importance of local information leads him to regret that in our endeavours to acquire it we have been far surpassed by our rivals the French. Here a quotation from a work by the *ci-devant* Duke de Rochefoucault-Liancourt, and several concomitant observations, are introduced to prove that the French emigrants in all their wanderings, and in spite of their sufferings, have still an eye to the increase of their national power, and will readily lay open the resources of the countries which protect them, to their government at home. The industry of the French in insinuating themselves among the native powers of India, the dangers to be from thence apprehended to the English, and the propriety of our acquiring possession of Macao, next follow in a series. The author then reverts to the Cape of Good Hope and points out the defects in the several accounts given of it. He proceeds to defend the chart prefixed to his former volume; accounts for the misrepresentations concerning the Cape, adverts to the indolence of the Dutch in all their colonies, and the industry of the Chinese at Batavia, from whence he concludes that to transplant ten thousand of the latter race to the Cape of Good Hope, would be of infinite advantage to that settlement. The chapter concludes with stating the objects of the work as in the title-page.

To the second chapter is prefixed the general head, "Military Expedition to the Kaffer frontier:" so many and so long however, are the episodes introduced into this expedition, that the reader is frequently surprized to find himself emerge suddenly out of a philosophical discussion, and reminded that he is still on his way to the Kaffer country. An establishment of Moravian missionaries which Mr. B. encounters on his journey, introduces a digression of considerable length on the character of the Hottentots and the labours of the missionaries among them. Immediately after, the untimely fate of two dragoons who were drowned by a sudden swell of a river, gives occasion to a disquisition of some length on the causes of the deep beds of the African rivers, which leads to another on the question whether the Cape peninsula was originally separated from the continent of Africa, and whether the sea is gaining on southern Africa. In another place the mention of iron ores introduces an account of an anchor found on the top

of Table Mountain, an appropriate Latin quotation, Dryden's translation of it, and an amended translation by the son of a friend of the author. The seizure of some rebellious boors, who were sent to the Cape for trial, leads the author to give a description of the court of justice there, and a defence of its members against some aspersions made upon them. He then returns to the subject of his expedition: but the mention of the manners which prevail among the Dutch boors of the distant colonies brings him back to the inhabitants of the Cape. The description which succeeds of the burgers and burgers' wives of Cape Town, would be sufficiently entertaining, were not the instances which he gives of their vulgarity, so gross, and even so obscene, that the description can be read only by a lady of the Cape.

These two chapters, which occupy 142 pages of the work, are merely preliminary, for it is not till the third chapter that the ostensible purpose of the work is entered upon. They however contain several valuable facts, and we should by no means have quarrelled with them, had not the arrangement been so extremely defective. We found it indeed impossible, after having read them, to recollect in what order the several facts they contain entered into our memory, without having recourse to the large table of contents which is very providently prefixed to the commencement of each.

After having thus censured the irregularity and apparent haste with which the materials of this work are thrown together, we turn with much more pleasure to those circumstances which demand our praise. The arrangement is indeed throughout negligent, and the different reasonings might, by a due compression, have been made to carry much more force along with them; yet the various advantages to be derived to this country from the possession of the Cape of Good Hope, and the importance of regaining that colony, are stated in a manner that shews the author to be well acquainted with his subject, and his opinion well deserving public attention. The advantages which it presents to this country as a military station are those to which he first adverts. The capture of the Cape by our forces, he observes, was considered as of the utmost importance to the British empire, and particularly to the East India Company, as being a barrier and grand outwork to their vast possessions in India. Its importance indeed was deemed of such magnitude, that it was a resolution of the minister from which he never meant to recede, "That no foreign power, directly or indirectly, should obtain possession of the Cape of Good Hope, for that it was the *physical guarantee* of the British territories in India." A question however had been started, whether the Cape was to be considered as a possession of the East India Company, or immediately dependent upon the crown. In the mean time, till this question should be decided, the right of sovereignty was vested in the crown, while at the same time every precaution was taken not to infringe in the slightest degree on the privileges of the East India Company, and to them also was given the exclusive right of supplying the Cape with India and China goods. These king-merchants, the Directors, however, did not relish this arrangement; they had so long been accustomed to lord it over every thing connected with the Indian trade, that nothing less than the sovereignty of the Cape could satisfy them; and rather than our government should assume the sovereignty of it, they desired to see it restored to our enemies, even although this step would be attended with evident injury to their own interests.

Our author proceeds to contrast the conduct of the East India Directors in the present instance, with that of their predecessors in the American war, who by their representations prevailed on government to attempt gaining possession of this colony; and before the commencement of the last war, it appears that negociations had been entered into with the Dutch to obtain the same object. Yet after all these testimonies to the importance of this settlement, "at a time when we were made to feel the inconvenience of its being in the possession of an enemy, or even of a neutral power, a very sensible change of opinion appears to have taken place from the very moment it became a dependency on the British crown. For it is very certain that the Directors of the East India Company did not only assume an affected indifference, with regard to this settlement, but endeavoured to discourage the retention of it in the strongest terms they possibly could have thought of, by shewing and proving to the world, as they imagined they had done, that the Cape was of no use whatever to their commerce, or their concerns in India. For this apparently absurd purpose, the commanders of all the ships in their employ, were forbid in the most positive terms to touch at the Cape, either in their outward or homeward bound passage, except such, on the return voyage, as were destined to supply the settlement with Indian goods."

Our author proceeds to shew the folly and even criminality of this prohibition. Although our English sailors are enabled by their vigorous constitutions to support a voyage to India without touching at any intermediate port, the poor Lascars, who frequently constitute two thirds of the crew, are totally unable to endure such a long run on salt provisions; so that the Directors themselves were obliged to countermand their order, as far as regarded the ships navigated by these natives of India. The regiments sent out from this country to India, also become so sickly in consequence of the long and unusual confinement, that unless they stop at some intermediate port, they are on their arrival in that hot climate, not only unfit for active service, but numbers of them fall victims to the diseases incident to newly arrived Europeans. On the contrary, by stopping at the Cape of Good Hope to refresh, the most sickly regiments are so completely restored, and so well seasoned for the climate of India, as to be able to enter into active warfare immediately on their arrival. These observations, which the author corroborates by many examples, are sufficient to shew that the spirit of monopoly has a tendency to corrupt the most enlightened and best informed men. A company of our most wealthy merchants, bred up in the capital of the most patriotic nation on earth, rather than have the miserable patronage of a small colony withdrawn from the grasp

of their monopoly, would use indirect means to have it restored to the implacable enemy of their country, in whose hands it may be made an engine to shake the very foundations of their own wealth and power!

Mr. B. proceeds to detail a variety of instances, which clearly shew that the Cape is an excellent station for seasoning troops to endure the climate of India, and particularly so for forming into soldiers, the young recruits usually chosen for the East India Company's service. Its importance as a military station is further enhanced by the readiness with which troops may be sent from thence to the coasts of India: or to the Red Sea, in case of any new attempt of the French to penetrate to India by that route. The uncommon cheapness of provisions at the Cape, and a premium borne there by the bills drawn, for the pay of troops, on the government of Great Britain, also render this the cheapest station, where we can maintain a part of our forces. As the expence of maintaining a sufficient military establishment at the Cape, was given out by some persons to be enormous, Mr. B. shews from official documents, that in the whole seven years we retained possession of that colony, the military department cost no more than £1,789,181, or £255,597 on an annual average; and this too in the time of war, and while we maintained there an army of five thousand men. But as during this period many fortifications were erected, Mr. B. calculates, that in time of peace the contingencies and extraordinaries of the army would not amount to above twenty-five or thirty thousand pounds, and that this sum, as well as all the demands of the civil department, might by a prudent management be easily defrayed out of the revenues of the colony.

After observing on the means afforded by the Cape at present to the French, in supplying with provisions and stores, the isles of France and Mauritius, our author enters into a desultory discussion of the comparative importance of Malta and the Cape to Great Britain; his conclusion is, that neither can be given up to France, without endangering the security of our East India possessions. The military defences of the Cape peninsula, and the best modes of attack, with the probability of its falling an easy prey to any British force that may at present appear before it, conclude this chapter.

The advantages resulting from the Cape of Good Hope as a naval station, are the shelter it affords to ships so often distressed by violent storms in those latitudes, and the convenience it affords to all vessels for refitting and refreshing. The command it gives of the Indian Seas, by affording a station for ships of war, presents another important benefit; the ships of every nation that trades to India must stop here, as none but the English can attempt such a voyage without refreshing; and our cruizers can with the utmost ease be dispatched to either America or India. At the same time, if the French possess this station, with the isles of France and Mauritius, and the Rio de la Plata, belonging to their tributary Spain, and shall be able to place cruizing squadrons at these, it will be in their power so completely to beset our trading vessels, particularly on their homeward-bound voyage from India, that little chance of escape will remain to them. A description, from the latest surveys, is given of the several naval stations which the Cape affords: Saldanha Bay is greatly preferred by the author, for its superior security; and he thinks the scarcity of water there may easily be obviated.

The commercial advantages to be derived from the Cape of Good Hope, are the least important to this country. Its exports are at present very trifling, nor can they in our author's opinion be greatly encreased. The propriety of rendering it a depôt of Indian commodities may be disputed, although by this means we might retain the whole Indian trade in our own hands. As a station for the Southern Whale Fishery, however, its advantages might be great; that whole fishery must of necessity fall into our hands, as we could undersell every other nation; whereas at present our adventurers in this line are subjected to the greatest difficulties, owing to our not having a single port in that quarter at which they can refit or refresh.

In the statistical account of the colony, which is drawn up with much perspicuity, one is particularly struck with the extreme scantiness of the population. In a country blest with a most salubrious climate, in many places possessing a fertile soil, and comprehending an extent of 120,000 square miles, it seems altogether unaccountable that the whole population, freemen and slaves, should, in the long period it has been colonized, amount to no more than 61,000 souls; which, as Mr. B. observes, is about *one* human creature to every two square miles. The thinness of the population is almost entirely to be ascribed to the absurd regulations of the Dutch government, who from a jealous policy would not allow farm-houses in the interior parts to be built within three miles of each other. The quantity of waste land arising from this and other causes is prodigious; and even those parts which are occupied, are cultivated in the most slovenly and careless manner.

Mr. B. informs us that all ranks of people in the colony, are better fed, and with less labour, than in any part of the world. A beggar is a thing unheard of; and yet the slovenliness, indolence, and bad dispositions of a great part of the colonists render them a most uncomfortable and unhappy race. The inhuman cruelty of the more distant boors to the helpless and peaceable Hottentots, is exemplified in a number of instances that shock human nature; and yet by this means they doom themselves to the most tormenting and perpetual apprehensions of retaliation.—Our author concludes his statistical view by recommending certain improvements, which we trust will not be overlooked by government, if it should be judged advisable to regain possession of this colony to Great Britain.

After having given this analysis of the work before us, it will be unnecessary to offer any general criticisms. The language like the arrangement is loose and careless. Yet Mr. Barrow is entitled to much praise: he has given his countrymen a fuller and more accurate account of the Cape of Good Hope than any preceding traveller; and if very strong considerations cannot be brought forward to outweigh

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the advantages he supposes Great Britain would derive from the possession of this colony, he deserves much praise for having stood forward to awaken the attention of his countrymen to so important a national object.

The plates which accompany the work are well executed and valuable on many accounts. The charts of the several bays must be of much importance to our seamen in the event of the Cape being retaken; and the military map of the southern peninsula of the Cape, is so distinctly laid down, as to afford, we should imagine, considerable information to our military men who might be employed in carrying that enterprize into execution. Ω.

Primitive Truth and Order vindicated from modern Misrepresentation; with a Defence of Episcopacy, particularly that of Scotland, against an Attack made on it, by the late Dr. Campbell of Aberdeen; in his Lectures on Ecclesiastical History: and a concluding Address to the Episcopalians of Scotland. By the Right Rev. John Skinner, in Aberdeen, Senior Bishop of the Scotch Episcopal Church. 8vo. *pp.* 545. *Aberdeen*, 1803. *For Rivingtons, London, &c.*

This book is a proof of what we asserted, when considering the controversy between the Chancellor of Ireland, and the Earl Fingal, that the Roman Catholics are not the only set of Christians, who confine the title *Church of Christ* to those who adopt the same principles and forms with themselves. Here is a person, firmly convinced himself, and who labours with prodigious earnestness to persuade the world, that nothing can be called the church of Christ, which has not one class of teachers of a higher order than two other classes, appointed to a superiority over these two classes by persons who themselves enjoyed it, and to whom it was derived from similar teachers, in an uninterrupted line from the apostles, whose immediate, and only successors these teachers have been. Let any community of persons exist, who have only one class of religious instructors, and let these persons believe the Christian doctrine, and discharge the Christian duties, more perfectly than any community of Christians has ever yet done, and let the teachers be the most wise, virtuous, and faithful, which have ever existed since the days of the apostles, it is all to no purpose; such teachers are no successors of the apostles; nor do they and their adherents form any part of the church of Christ. Why? Because the *authority* to teach Christianity must come from the apostles, communicated first to one man and then to another, through all ages, in an uninterrupted lineal descent.

We had formed so high an opinion of the knowledge diffused in our nation as to believe that this wretched theory could no longer be maintained in the light of day; and that it was consigned to the place of many other ridiculous notions entertained when the human mind had not yet emerged from the darkness of the Gothic ages. At the time when a part of the Christian world dissented from the Romish church, and, as was natural, broke into different parties, each party imagined that it alone had done right; it exaggerated the points of difference; and laboured to prove that every other party was so far in the wrong, as to forfeit all claim to be considered part of the church of Christ. Calvinists and Arminians; Episcopalians and Presbyterians; each sect and denomination advanced the exclusive pretension, it alone was the peculiar flock; all others stood without the pale. At the time of which we are speaking, such notions, however unchristian, and pernicious, were not surprising, if we consider the state of knowledge in other subjects not more difficult. As knowledge has advanced, these notions have been gradually altered. Men are not so far conceited with their own ideas, as to suppose that they alone can be right. They are convinced that the points in which Christians agree are the essential matters; and that though one mode of Christianity may be more effectual than another in conveying just sentiments of the divine nature, and training men to piety and virtue; they may be both pious and virtuous, adhering to any form of Christianity; and by consequence, real Christians.

The violence with which differences on points of belief have been maintained has been frequently very ridiculous, and very mischievous. But we must confess that we look with a sort of reverence on an earnestness in speculative points; because in general a connection is discernible between them and some of the most important objects; between the doctrine of the atonement, for example, and the peculiar light in which we are to regard the relation in which we stand to the Divine Being. But when disputes come to matters of external form, they are below contempt. When, for example, the whole world is thrown into combustion by contending whether Easter should be celebrated always on one day of the moon, or one day of the week; whether our addresses should be made to the Deity with our faces turned to the east or to any other quarter.

Of this wretched class is the dispute maintained with so much vehemence by the poor man who is the author of this performance. It is not any doctrine, or supposed doctrine of Christianity about which he is so much agitated. It is only a matter of church government; it is not the thing taught, but the manner of teaching it. This mode, this form, is according to him, the very essence of Christianity; since a man is no longer a Christian, though right in every thing else, if he be wrong in this cardinal point. If he believe not that there were three orders of Christian pastors—1st. Bishops; 2d. Priests or Presbyters; and 3d, Deacons, appointed by the head of the church; that there has been a regular succession of bishops, down from the apostles, who have communicated to one another, by this lineal descent, the authority which the apostles derived from Jesus Christ; and that it is in this lineal descent alone, and by this communication, that authority to administer the rites of Christianity can be derived; he may be a very good man, a *sincere* worshipper of God, and believer in the redemption by Christ Jesus, but he is no member of the Church, and can expect none of the privileges and rewards of a Christian.

The cause from which this production seems more immediately to have originated is the appearance of a posthumous work of the late Dr. Campbell, the pro-

found and venerable author of *The Dissertation on Miracles, The Philosophy of Rhetoric*, and *A Translation of the Gospels*. It was part of Dr. Campbell's duty, as professor of Theology in the University of Aberdeen, to deliver Lectures to the students on Ecclesiastical History. A part of these, relating to the primitive state of Christianity, were left by him, perfectly prepared for the press; and they were published by his executors some time after his death. On inquiring into the mode in which the first assemblies of the Christians were formed, and their affairs conducted, Dr. Campbell found, as many enlightened and impartial men had done before him, the learned and judicious Mosheim for instance, and the ingenious and diligent author of the *Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, that a perfect equality existed between the teachers, and that every assembly or congregation formed an independent community, which acknowledged no authority except that of any eminent teacher, whose advice or reproof it might deem it expedient and profitable to receive. In giving this account Dr. Campbell found it necessary to take notice of the claim which had been put in for the divine right of episcopacy. This claim is founded on the belief that three orders of priests in regular subordination were appointed by Jesus Christ, and intended to continue to the end of the world. This accordingly is directly contrary to the conclusion, which from the examination of the documents come down to us, Dr. Campbell was induced to draw; and he has taken much greater pains to remove every plea which can be made for it, than in our opinion it deserves. The lectures were probably drawn up at an early period of his life, when the absurdity of the claim was not so generally seen as at present. The refutation is conducted with all that extensive learning, and singular acuteness, for which the author was so remarkable; and certainly he often sets the arguments for the Jus Divinum in a very ridiculous light.

That great and respectable body, the church of England, the best and purest form of the episcopal polity, has no controversy with Dr. Campbell on this subject. The divine right of episcopacy is now as little taught by her enlightened and liberal sons, as the divine right of kings. They prefer, indeed, the monarchical form of civil government; and the episcopal form of church government; not because they think there is any thing sacred, and inviolable in either; but because they think the one is best adapted for promoting social order, and the other for promoting Christian edification. It is the expediency of the forms, not their divine right for which they value them. Consider that eloquent eulogium on episcopacy penned by Mr. Burke in his reflections on the revolution in France; you will find that every topic of praise, so persuasively urged, is drawn from the utility of the institution; not a word is said of its divine appointment; yet this is not a topic which would have been omitted by so sincere a Christian as Mr. Burke, had he believed it was of any value. The passage is highly worthy of attention:

"The men of England, the men, I mean, of light and leading in England, whose wisdom (if they have any) is open and direct, would be ashamed, as of a silly deceitful trick, to profess any religion in name, which by their proceedings they appeared to contemn. If by their conduct (the only language that rarely lies) they seemed to regard the great ruling principle of the moral and the natural world, as a mere invention to keep the vulgar in obedience, they apprehend that by such a conduct they would defeat the politic purpose they have in view. They would find it difficult to make others to believe in a system to which they manifestly gave no credit themselves. The Christian statesmen of this land would indeed first provide for the *multitude*; because it is the *multitude*; and is therefore, as such, the first object in the ecclesiastical institution, and in all institutions. They have been taught, that the circumstance of the gospel's being preached to the poor, was one of the great tests of its true mission. They think, therefore, that those do not believe it, who do not take care it should be preached to the poor. But as they know that charity is not confined to any one description, but ought to apply itself to all men who have wants, they are not deprived of a due and anxious sensation of pity to the distresses of the miserable great. They are not repelled through a fastidious delicacy, at the stench of their arrogance and presumption, from a medicinal attention to their mental blotches and running sores. They are sensible, that religious instruction is of more consequence to them than to any others; from the greatness of the temptation to which they are exposed; from the important consequences that attend their faults; from the contagion of their ill example; from the necessity of bowing down the stubborn neck of their pride and ambition to the yoke of moderation and virtue; from a consideration of the fat stupidity and gross ignorance concerning what imports men most to know, which prevails at courts, and at the head of armies, and in senates, as much as at the loom and in the field.

"The English people are satisfied, that to the great the consolations of religion are as necessary as its instructions. They too are among the unhappy. They feel personal pain and domestic sorrow. In these they have no privilege, but are subject to pay their full contingent to the contributions levied on mortality. They want this sovereign balm under their gnawing cares and anxieties, which being less conversant about the limited wants of animal life, range without limit, and are diversified by infinite combinations in the wild and unbounded regions of imagination. Some charitable dole is wanting to these, our often very unhappy brethren, to fill the gloomy void that reigns in minds which have nothing on earth to hope or fear; something to relieve in the killing languor and over-laboured lassitude of those who have nothing to do; something to excite an appetite to existence in the palled satiety which attends on all pleasures which may be bought, where nature is not left to her own process, where even desire is anticipated, and therefore fruition defeated by meditated schemes and contrivances of delight; and no interval, no obstacle, is interposed between the wish and the accomplishment.

The people of England know how little influence the teachers of religion are likely to have with the wealthy and powerful of long standing, and how much less with the newly fortunate, if they appear in a manner no way assorted to those with whom they must associate, and over whom they must even exercise, in some cases, something like an authority. What must they think of that body of teachers, if they see it in no part above the establishment of their domestic servants? If the poverty were voluntary, there might be some difference. Strong instances of self-denial operate powerfully on our minds; and a man who has no wants has obtained great freedom and firmness, and even dignity. But as the mass of any description of men are but men, and their poverty cannot be voluntary, that disrespect which attends upon all Lay poverty, will not de-

part from the Ecclesiastical. Our provident constitution has therefore taken care that those who are to instruct presumptuous ignorance, those who are to be censors over insolent vice, should neither incur their contempt, nor live upon their alms; nor will it tempt the rich to a neglect of the true medicine of their minds. For these reasons, whilst we provide first for the poor, and with a parental solicitude, we have not relegated religion (like something we were ashamed to shew) to obscure municipalities or rustic villages. No! We will have her to exalt her mitred front in courts and parliaments. We will have her mixed throughout the whole mass of life, and blended with all the classes of society. The people of England will shew to the haughty potentates of the world, and to their talking sophisters, that a free, a generous, an informed nation, honours the high magistrates of its church; that it will not suffer the insolence of wealth and titles, or any other species of proud pretension, to look down with scorn upon what they look up to with reverence; nor presume to trample on that acquired personal nobility, which they intend always to be, and which often is the fruit, not the reward, (for what can be the reward?) of learning, piety, and virtue. They can see, without pain or grudging, an Archbishop precede a Duke. They can see a Bishop of Durham, or a Bishop of Winchester, in possession of ten thousand pounds a year; and cannot conceive why it is in worse hands than estates to the like amount in the hands of this Earl, or that Squire; although it may be true, that so many dogs and horses are not kept by the former, and fed with the victuals which ought to nourish the children of the people. It is true, the whole church revenue is not always employed, and to every shilling, in charity; nor perhaps ought it; but something is generally so employed. It is better to cherish virtue and humanity, by leaving much to free will, even with some loss to the object, than to attempt to make men mere machines and instruments of a political benevolence. The world on the whole will gain by a liberty, without which virtue cannot exist."

Thus too Dr. Campbell:

"Permit me to premise in general, that the question so much agitated, not only between protestants and papists, but also between sects of protestants, in regard to the original form of government established by the apostles in the church, though not a trivial question, is by no means of that consequence which some warm disputants, misled by party prejudices, and that intemperate zeal, into which a struggle long maintained commonly betrays the antagonists on both sides, would affect to make it. It is said proverbially by the Apostle, as holding alike of every thing external and circumstantial: "The kingdom of God is not 'meat and drink, but righteousness and peace, and joy in 'the Holy Ghost. For he that in these things serveth 'Christ, is acceptable to God, and approved of men.' To me nothing is more evident than that the essence of Christianity, abstractly considered, consists in the system of doctrines and duties, revealed by our Lord Jesus Christ, and that the essence of the Christian character consists in the belief of the one, and the obedience of the other. And nothing can be conceived more absurd in itself, or more contradictory to the declarations of scripture, than to say that a man's belief, and obedience of the gospel, however genuine the one, and however sincere the other, are of no significancy, unless he has received his information of the gospel, or been initiated into the church by a proper minister. This is placing the essence of religion, not in any thing interior and spiritual, not in what Christ and his apostles placed it, something personal in regard to the disciple, and what is emphatically styled in scripture *the hidden man of the heart*, but in an exterior circumstance, a circumstance which in regard to him is merely accidental, a circumstance of which it may be impossible for him to be apprised."

"The outward order, however important it may be, affects not the essence of religion in the least. The garments which a man wears, or the house in which he lodges, however necessary for his accommodation and comfortable subsistence, are not as his limbs and members, and still less as the powers and faculties of his mind, a part of his person. Now in this respect there appears a very close analogy. For though in our present situation, clothes and dwelling are requisite for protecting us against the inclemencies of the weather, and other external accidents, we may, nevertheless, have both clothes and dwelling of different forms, yet equally commodious. Nay, one form may be more convenient in certain climates and certain situations which is less convenient in other climates and other situations. The same thing may with equal truth be affirmed concerning the form of church government. Of whatever mode it be, absolute or limited, monarchical or republican, unless it degenerate into tyranny, it is intitled to the obedience of the subject. For 'the powers that be, ἀι ουσαι ἐξουσιαι, are ordained of God.' No criterion is mentioned but established possession. Now I can see no reason why a church may not subsist under different forms as well as a state, and though it must be owned, that one form may be more favourable than another to the spirit and design of the constitution, we cannot always judge with safety from the first of these how much it has retained of the last. Nay, I must acknowledge, that for any thing I could ever discover in the sacred oracles to the contrary, the internal order may properly undergo such alterations, as the ends of edification in different exigencies may require, and prudence may direct. The only thing of real importance is, that nothing be admitted which can in any way subvert the fundamental maxims, or infringe the spiritual nature of the government."

"It will be owned likewise, by those who on this subject are capable of examining with coolness, and pronouncing with impartiality, that we have not that information in holy writ, from which we can with certainty form a judgement concerning the entire model of the apostolic church. What we can learn thence on this subject, we must collect from scattered hints given as it were incidentally, when nothing seemed less the intention of the writers than to convey to us a particular account of the plan or the society they had formed.—What can we thence conclude, but that nothing was farther from the view of the inspired writers than to prescribe any rule to us on the subject, or to give us any information which could lead us to imagine, that a particular form of polity was necessary, or even more acceptable to God than another? What can we conclude, but that it was intended by the Holy Spirit thus to teach us to distinguish between what is essential to the Christian religion, the principles to be believed, and the duties to be practised, and which are therefore perpetual and unchangeable; and what is comparatively circumstantial, regarding external order and discipline, which, as matters of expedience, alter with circumstances, and are therefore left to the adjustment of human prudence!—If the scriptures contain a revelation from God, and consequently be true, we must admit them to be perfect, and to want nothing essential to the information of Christians in faith and practice. But in this he can never consistently acquiesce, who maintains a certain ecclesiastical polity to be essential, concerning which the scripture has given us neither information nor command. This necessarily forces us into the dilemma of affirming, either that the above doctrine is not only false, but pernicious, in subverting the authority of scripture; or that scripture is both false and self-contradictory in asserting the perfection of its own doctrine, whilst it has withholden all intelligence upon an

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article, without the observance of which, all the other instructions it gives are vain, our faith is vain, we are yet in our sins."

Such is the doctrine which by the present performance we are taught to believe is the subversion of primitive truth and order. If it be, we are seriously afraid primitive truth and order has few friends in this kingdom. For we dare confidently assert that very few belong, either to the church of England, to the church of Scotland, or even to the body of dissenters, who are not ready to subscribe to these mischievous opinions. It must afford great consolation however, to the friends of "primitive truth and order," that so weighty a cause has found so well qualified a supporter. Things are just as they should be, when a ridiculous proposition is maintained by trifling in the shape of argument, misrepresentation of an adversary instead of refutation, and unmannerly, illiberal imputations, instead of any proof of evil consequences connected with the doctrines opposed.

It is worth while to know a little who the great character is, who has written a book, which in the beginning of the nineteenth century deserves to be held a phenomenon. He is a member of what he himself calls p. 7, "The old established church of Scotland." There is an ambiguity in this expression, of which the author meant to avail himself. It does not mean, according to him, the church formerly established, but which is not the established church now. It means the church established of old in Scotland, and which is the only established church in it still. We know that this is the doctrine of the party. Accordingly it is observable, that throughout the whole of this publication, whenever the author has occasion to speak of the church of Scotland, he calls it the establishment, but never, as far as we remember, the established *church*. Indeed it would be absurd in him to do so, as Presbyterianism, according to him, can never be a part of what scripture denominates the "body of Christ."

This "old established church of Scotland," the exemplar in that country of "primitive truth and order," which is the established *church*, without being the establishment, was patronized by the four princes of the house of Stuart; and they endeavoured with the utmost earnestness, and with all the barbarities of a long and obstinate persecution, to impose it upon the unwilling people. The people resisted with the utmost earnestness, and with a steadiness of which there are few examples in history; and at last when freedom became, at the revolution, the system of government, they were gratified by the establishment of their beloved presbyterianism. On this occasion the adherents of Episcopacy who were but a small proportion of the people, were divided into two sorts. Part of them approved of the expulsion of the Stuart family from the throne. These joined the church of England, erected chapels under the jurisdiction of the Bishop of London, obtained clergymen ordained by the English bishops, have acquired their full share of the improvement and liberality which has been diffused in the nation, and are at present a most respectable, and leading body in the country. Another party were equally zealous for the divine right of episcopacy, and for the divine and indefeasible right of kings. These adhered to what they call their old establishment, to their own formularies, and their own articles. They maintained the jurisdiction of their own order of bishops, and receive clergymen ordained by them only. This party has gradually dwindled and sunk; it is at this moment nearly the obscurest and meanest; and may, with the exception of a very few individuals, be safely pronounced nearly the most ignorant and bigoted of all the Scottish sectaries. It must very soon become extinct, because as any individual belonging to it acquires a portion of that liberality which is now so general, unless he be one of the clergy, he leaves this "old established church of Scotland," and joins the church of England.

Our author is a distinguished member of this party, whose pretensions are so magnificent. He is by consequence a very great man. He is a bishop, and the oldest bishop of the community. He is a direct successor of the apostles; and all those to whom he shall give a commission have a divine authority to preach; though no one receiving a commission from a body of such men as Dr. Blair, Dr. Robertson, and Dr. Campbell has any such authority; nor have they any such authority themselves; nor do they belong to the church of Christ.

Observe in what terms this modest bishop speaks of the *establishment* to which these men belonged.—He had been pathetically deploring the effects produced by a late sect in Scotland, which had sent forth missionaries into every part of the country, and laboured with wonderful zeal to gain proselytes. Against these efforts the general assembly of the church of Scotland thought proper to warn the people by a pastoral admonition, directed to be read in all the churches. To this measure our right reverend author alludes in the following words;

"Attempts have been made, by something like ecclesiastical authority,* to stop the progress of this growing evil, and to administer a remedy to those who are infected by this *missionary* phrensy; a sort of possession more worthy of one who has his 'dwelling among the tombs,' than of those who reside in the habitations of men! But they, who prescribe the remedy, ought to understand well the nature of the disease, and be able to trace the malady to its proper source. People, who admonish others to beware of falling into any dangerous error in matters of religion, ought themselves to be exempt from the mischief,† against which their admonition is directed. Such warnings come with an ill grace, and therefore with no great probability of doing much good, from those, who, perhaps it will be said, derive their own ministry from the same contempt of a regular apostolic mission, of which they now see such alarming consequences, as have at last produced a wish to prevent their farther increase."

What caution, and tenderness of conscience! This successor of the apostles, and by consequence an apostle himself, only states that *perhaps it will be said*

* Modest gentleman! The authority of the church of Scotland, the authority of the church established by law, that church which the King has sworn to maintain, is only something like ecclesiastical authority. It is not ecclesiastical authority really. No, by no means. It is only something like it; something which usurps the appearance of it.

† The church of Scotland is full of the same mischief which it imputes to that new sect, against which it thinks proper to warn the people.—A very civil remark!

that the ministers of the church of Scotland derive their ministry from a contempt of a regular apostolical mission. He does not say so himself. Not he! But he says that admonitions against Sectarianism come with an ill grace from them, and with no great probability of doing much good!

A few instances will shew the kind of treatment which our right reverend author bestows upon Dr. Campbell, who is his great antagonist. The species of discipline and government which Dr. Campbell represents as directing the assemblies of the Christians, in the time of the apostles, and immediately after, is very different from the present forms either of episcopacy or presbyterianism. This primitive order our author immediately accuses him of supporting, and recommending; though Dr. Campbell expressly states his opinion that this order was not intended by Jesus Christ to be copied; that different forms of government are suited to different circumstances; and that the form should always be adopted which is best to the use of edifying. This is misrepresentation. Take the bishop's own words for an instance of illiberality:

"But how shall we discover or allow the merit of any such inconsistency of character, where we see a man of acknowledged abilities, and holding some of the most distinguished offices, which the religious establishment of this country has to boast of, yet supporting and recommending a system of ecclesiastical order and discipline, almost as different from that which is established in Scotland, as it is opposite to every thing of the kind to be met with in the primitive church. Have not the friends of this establishment too much reason to suspect that their learned Lecturer would have been one of its warmest opponents, had not his opposition been prevented by the liberal provision, which it held out to him, and the preferments which he so long enjoyed?"

We believe the church of Scotland is as far from believing Dr. Campbell to have been a dishonest man and a hypocrite, because he did not think the government of the apostolical church was presbyterian; as the church of England is from thinking, with our author, that Archdeacon Paley is a bad christian, or rather no christian, because he has written the following passage:—

"He who by a diligent and faithful examination of the original records, dismisses from the system one article, which contradicts the apprehension, the experience, or the reasoning of mankind, does more towards recommending the belief, and with the belief, the influence of Christianity, to the understandings and consciences of serious inquirers, and through them to universal reception and authority, than can be effected by a thousand contenders for creeds and ordinances of human establishment."

This sagacious defender of episcopacy thinks it will have wonderful force to discredit the arguments of his antagonist, to say that they had been often advanced before; and in particular to remark in a manner intended to be sarcastic, that his notions of the form of government of the primitive church very much agree with those of Mr. Gibbon.

He refers with great complacency to a criticism on Dr. Campbell's book, published in the Antijacobin Review; a criticism very little creditable to that publication; and well known to have been written by a member of the same community; a minister in this old established church of Scotland; they are parties accordingly equally concerned; and it is not wonderful they should remarkably approve of one another.

We have one remark to make, and one favour to ask, and then we shall close our criticism on the right reverend John Skinner's pleading for the jus divinum of episcopacy. The remark is, that every one of his arguments is either a begging of the question, or something more silly.

The favour we have to ask is, that he, or his apostolical brother, the Antijacobin reviewer, will have the goodness to explain to the world distinctly the line of successors, in which the divine authority of the apostles has been conveyed down to them from hand to hand. If they trace the communication back to the origin of the reformation in this country, how do they act then? From whom did the first set of protestant bishops derive their divine authority. Was this divine authority preserved among the Roman Catholics, and handed down from one generation to another. Then the Roman Catholic must be the true church, and there could be no good reason for dissenting from it. Or if the Roman Catholic be not the true church, it is worse than ridiculous, it is blasphemous, to say that they had the divine authority to preach, and baptize, and ordain teachers. This is a dilemma which never can be got rid of by sound reasoning. But bigotted men find means of prolonging their own delusion, against arguments as cogent as mathematical demonstration. M.

Bisset's History of the Reign of George the Third. Concluded.

The fifth volume of this work commences with an excellent outline of the remote as well as the proximate causes of the French Revolution. The historian first takes a retrospect of the old government of France, in which, like the other feudal governments of Europe, the monarch was controuled and the people oppressed by a powerful and turbulent nobility; till by the acts of Richelieu under Lewis XIV. they were reduced to be mere ornaments of the court. The people at large became the same servile vassals to the throne as they had before been to their feudal chiefs, and there remained no check whatever on the power of the crown, but the ineffectual though often spirited remonstrances of the parliament of Paris which in fact was no more than a supreme court of judicature. Whilst no power was left to check the tyranny of the monarch, there was none also left to check the fury of the people when they chose to think for themselves, and when by the connivance of the weak and profligate ministers of an indolent monarch, Lewis XV. Voltaire, Rousseau, and a crowd of their admirers and followers disseminated the principles of anarchy and atheism through the whole nation, the morals of the people were so generally corrupted that at the accession of the unfortunate Lewis XVI. they were ripe for any system of innovation. The corruption of the army which assisted our revolted colonies, and the expences attending that war, which compelled the King first to assemble the notables and then to have recourse to a general assembly of the estates which had never been called since the minority

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of Lewis XIV. an interval of 175 years; themildne ss and indecision of the King; the timidity of some, and the treachery of others of the nobility; the extravagant assumption of the Commons and the ferocity of the body of the people; with all their united consequences in annihilating the monarchy are pursued through this and some of the subsequent chapters with a precision and perspicuity which one would conceive hardly compatible with the space in which they are compressed.

The forty-third chapter concludes with remarking how popular the French Revolution in its commencement was in this country. The effects of this in Parliament, with the contrary opinions of Fox and Burke, and the expected rupture with Spain on the affair of Nootka Sound, occupy the forty-fourth. Chap. XLV. details the affairs on the Continent, the insurrection in the Netherlands, the progress of the Revolution in France and the various impressions it made on the public mind here. The next chapter contains little more than the disputes in Parliament and the different opinions of the leading characters there on the same subject. In the beginning of Chapter XLVII. we find some account of the affairs in the North which lose their consequence among the dreadful scenes which filled the south of Europe. The principal event in this chapter is the flight of Lewis, his arrest at Varennes, and his return to Paris as a prisoner. The mention of Mary Anne Wolstoncroft's book, and the Eulogy on Mackintosh's Vindiciæ Gallicæ might surely have been spared without any detriment either to the dignity or the interest of the history.

Chapter XLVIII. details the splendid successes of Lord Cornwallis and the defeat and capitulation of Tippoo Saib; the two following proceed with the horrors that attended the French revolution, the treaty of Pilnitz, the retreat of the Duke of Brunswick, the triumphs of Dumourier, &c. In these the historian has shewn his powers of animated and pathetic narrative in several places, especially in his account of the shocking massacres in Paris, the murder of the princess Lamballe, and the behaviour of Lewis XVI. on the scaffold.

In Chap. LI. we find the proceedings of parliament on the bills for preventing seditious meetings and traiterous correspondence; and then follows a detail of the beginning of the campaign in Holland and Flanders. The fifty-second chapter commences with overtures, as they are called, of the French government for peace with Great Britain. The recording this obtrusion of a few obscure individuals into the negociations of two mighty nations, is a disgrace to the historian, and a blush for the degraded dignity of history herself, when we see her page mentioning at some length, the congress of such plenipotentiaries as Mr. James Matthews, Mr. Salter, or even Mr. David Williams, notwithstanding his "literary celebrity," or "his kind condescension in enabling the historian to lay the history of this mission before the reader." The rest of the chapter proceeds with the remainder of the campaign filled with events so glorious to the arms of Great Britain; the battles of St. Amand and Famars; the capture of Conde and Valenciennes, the surrender of Toulon to Lord Hood and the victory of Lincelles which deserved a prouder panegyric than this cold account, "that the Dutch under the hereditary Prince of Orange, attacked a French post and were repulsed, but the British troops though very inferior in force, carried the post with fixed bayonets and defeated the enemy."

The principal features in the next chapter are the tyranny of the reign of Robespierre, and the execution of the Queen and the Duke of Orleans. The wanton cruelty and insult which attended the death of the Queen are described with the proper feelings of indignation, but Dr. Bisset with his *usual candour* seems to consider the behaviour of Orleans on the scaffold as in some degree a *set off* (if on such an occasion we may use such a phrase) against the crimes of the most abominable and infamous character which ever stained the page of history. The fifth volume relates the campaign in Flanders and Holland in the year 1794, when the tide of fortune turned against the British forces, and which ended with their evacuation of the Continent after a gallant but ineffectual struggle against a superior enemy in defence of timid and treacherous allies; and concludes, after recording the splendid victory gained over the French Fleet on the first of June, with this summary and just remark, "that the year 1794 surpassing in disaster by land the unfortunate 1777 or 1781, by sea equalled the glories of 1759."

The sixth volume opens with the destruction of Robespierre when France began to assume a form of government somewhat more regular; it then describes the various questions which agitated the public at home relative to the expediency of carrying on the war and the probability of obtaining peace; it mentions the acquittal of Hastings after the longest trial perhaps, which ever took place in any age or country.

The next chapter is chiefly taken up with relating the progressive success of France by land, and of Britain by sea; at the close of it Bonaparte is first introduced to notice as a "young and spirited Corsican officer whose skill and enterprize gave a decisive victory to the Conventional troops" over an insurrection of citizens in the streets of Paris.

In Chap. LVII. we find an account of the riots and seditious assemblies that took place in London and its vicinity in the year 1795; the insults on the King as he went to Parliament, and the two Bills passed in consequence: one for the safety of his Majesty's person, and the other for preventing seditious meetings; together with the ferments in the nation occasioned by them, which are much magnified by Dr. Bisset.

In Chap. LVIII. we find an animated picture of the victories of Bonaparte in Europe, and the almost unresisted efforts of our arms in the East and West Indies; the following opens with the ineffectual negociation of Lord Malmsbury for peace, and details the mutiny in the fleet which had so nearly given a death-wound to this country.

The sixtieth chapter details the events of the campaign of 1797 which for a time put an end to the Continental alliance against France, and left this country to contend alone with her inordinate ambi-

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tion and power. The victories of Jervis and Duncan follow, and another fruitless negociation for peace opened by Lord Malmsbury at Lisle. The sixty-first is chiefly occupied by the affairs of Ireland, and the dreadful effects of insurrection in that distracted country. The sixty-second relates the threats of French Invasion, and the firmness and energy of defence in this country; the diversion of what was termed the army of England from these shores to those of Egypt, and the splendid decisive victory of Nelson in the bay of Aboukir.

Chap. LXIII. is chiefly confined to the debates in Parliament: it is singular enough that though in the table of contents prefixed to it we find, "Inquiry into the state prisons."—there is no mention of it in the chapter. The Continental confederacy against France, the success of the Austrians under the Arch-duke Charles; and of the Russians under Suwarrow, the expedition to North Holland, its fortunate commencement and unfortunate issue, are comprised in the sixty-fourth chapter; and the following is filled with the proceedings of Bonaparte in Egypt, and the check of his progress at Acre by a handful of British seamen, acting as soldiers, and led by an enterprising and intelligent warrior, the brave Sir Sidney Smith, equally distinguished in each capacity.

The next chapter begins with one of the most extraordinary incidents that ever was recorded in the annals of mankind, a defeated general (for such Bonaparte was after the affair of Acre) leaving his army, passing in an unarmed vessel through a sea covered with the ships of his enemies, landing alone in his native country; travelling alone through it to the metropolis; seating himself at once, almost without opposition, in the vacant throne of the Bourbons, and annihilating in a moment that structure of republicanism which had cost so much blood and so much oppression. In this chapter is recorded the final establishment of the Union between Great Britain and Ireland, by the Bill receiving the Royal Assent, an era from which we trust the most happy consequences may be augured to both countries.

The sixty-seventh relates the campaign of Bonaparte in Italy which concluded with the battle of Marengo; the conclusion of the war with the Emperor; and the convention with the French by Sir Sidney Smith for the evacuation of Egypt, which the ministers refused to ratify. On this subject which has so much engrossed the general attention, the historian says very little, but in that little vindicates the conduct of the ministers.

The defection of Paul from the confederacy against France, and his hostile intentions towards Britain; the illness of the King; and the resignation of Mr. Pitt, are the principal features of the sixty-eight chapter. Of Mr. Pitt's administration the historian has given a masterly portrait. He describes him as possessing great powers of oratory, unshaken firmness and unimpeached integrity, and concludes with this animated summary of the whole:

"It is less the province of the historian to obtrude upon his readers his own judgment, than to furnish to them facts on which to ground theirs: without therefore presuming to solve so very contested a question, I cannot help declaring my thorough conviction, founded on an impartial and accurate view of his whole conduct, that Mr. Pitt, in advising the commencement of the war, and at various stages of its continuance, acted conscientiously, and according to the best of his judgment; and sought the benefit of his king and country, whose affairs he so long administered. Whether unbiassed posterity shall regard the war of 1793 as a necessary or unnecessary measure, peace in 1796 and in 1800 as attainable or not attainable, they must account Mr. Pitt in the whole series of his administration, a statesman of great ability and strength of mind, who rendered momentous services to his country; and must allow that never was the force of the British character tried by such dangers, or graced by more splendid atchievements, than under the administration of William Pitt."

The work concludes with the attack of Copenhagen by Lord Nelson; the death of the Emperor Paul, and the accession of his son Alexander; the victory gained by the British troops in Egypt under Abercromby; the signature of the preliminary articles of peace between Great Britain and France. On the influence of this peace on the affairs of both countries the historian has been precluded from making any striking observations by the unfortunate circumstance of the flames of war being on the point of breaking out with redoubled violence when his work was nearly printed.

In the progress of this analysis we trust we have enabled our readers to be tolerably competent judges of the execution of it. The chief objections we have to make are that the author is too indiscriminate in his panegyric, that he is much too diffuse in his detail of Parliamentary proceedings, and that he descends to mention some particulars which are too trifling to attract the notice of the historian. At the commencement of our review, we mentioned the difficulty that attends the historian of his own time from the multitude of materials furnished by the journals of the day. Had Dr. Bisset been more cautious in selection, the work might have been reduced to half its size without any loss to the interest or the information it imparts. There are models, however, which the historian of his own time may study with advantage, we mean the historians of Greece. Thucydides and Xenophon not only recorded scenes that passed before their eyes but scenes in which they were principal actors themselves. That there is a great difference between the situation of the ancient and modern historian there is no doubt; but we would recommend some attention to the arrangement of the body of the work, to that *lucidus ordo* so conspicuous in the ancient historians, and to give the authorities which are required by the modern reader in an appendix.

The style, though in general perspicuous, is sometimes slovenly, and sometimes inflated. Of the first we produce the following example—speaking of the mutiny of the seamen we find this very aukward sentence, "Alarmed at this intelligence, government sent to quell the tumult, Lord Howe."

In addition to an instance we have before given of inflated language, we add this which is also an instance of defective construction: describing the landing of our troops in Egypt, the historian says, "In a situation in which they could not return the enemies' fire, and seeing their comrades fall about them under

these fell messengers of multiplied death, instead of being dismayed, our heroic soldiers were the more indignantly eager to reach the shore, where bringing arm to arm of Briton against Frenchman they knew they should soon avenge their fellow countrymen."

Notwithstanding some blemishes we must recommend this in general as a work replete with both information and amusement; and while it is free from any spirit of party, it breathes throughout a firm attachment to temperate freedom and the spirit of the British constitution, a sincere regard to the honour of the British character, and a just veneration for the rights of Reason, of Religion, and Morality. E.

Considerations on the General Conditions of the Christian Covenant with a View to some important Controversy. By Joseph Holden Pott, *A. M. Archdeacon of St. Alban's.* 8vo. *Rivingtons.*

The design of the reverend author in this pamphlet is to reconcile our justification by faith with his view of the Conditions of the Christian Covenant. He first states the several senses in which faith may be said to justify us, and then draws the conclusion that the terms of the Christian Covenant as stated in our first engagement and baptismal vow, and as consisting of repentance, faith and obedience, are perfectly compatible with the methods of explaining the scripture doctrine of justification by faith. The essence of the points which are intended to be established are these, that the sufferings and merits of Christ applied to us by faith, are the only ground and proper cause of our redemption, which is the view taken of the subject by St. Paul in his Epistle to the Romans; that the benefits of pardon, grace and glory are the blessings purchased by our Saviour's merits, but that the grant of those gifts is *suspended* on conditions adapted to a state of trial consistent with our present circumstances and capacity. Such conditions are considered as absolutely inseparable from a state of trial which necessarily supposes that man is a moral and accountable agent. With this view of the case, the author examines the senses in which faith is said in scripture to justify us. These he reduces to three. Faith justifies us, 1st. as it implies the whole method of justification under a covenant of grace, in contradistinction to a covenant of works; 2dly, As it appears to be the leading principle of conduct which is the faith mentioned by St. Paul in his eminent examples from former ages; 3dly, As it has a peculiar office in the work of justification, which office the reverend author does not explain, but which we suppose to be that of applying to us the merits of our Redeemer. All these senses he contends are perfectly compatible with the terms of the covenant, repentance, holiness, &c. &c. which repentance and holiness are produced by faith, not by a physical and necessary influence, but by a moral operation which leaves room for the proper exercise of trial. The author concludes this head with the following observations:

"By what has been offered on this head of doctrine which relates to our justification and acceptance before God, it is manifest that they who maintain the threefold condition of the Christian covenant, do not put their own performances either in the whole or in part in the place of the Redeemer's merits; nor do they in the least detract from the full sense of justification by faith only, as opposed to that whole mode of justification which is proper to a covenant of works. The misconception here alluded to is frequently encouraged by neglecting to mark what has been distinctly pointed out, the difference of intent between that which is wrought by our Redeemer in order to procure acceptance for us by its own worth; and that which is required of the believer in compliance only with the terms upon which such benefit is bestowed. The first is the only meritorious ground or cause of our salvation; the second is truly and properly the condition."

The author next proceeds to apply the same text to another main point of Christian doctrine, and to examine how far the conditions of the covenant are consistent with the declaration that the grace of God is freely given; and here he considers the doctrine of absolute election which involves the same important question. On this point the reverend author admits that God, in order to shew that redeeming merit exists no where in man, often calls to certain external privileges nations and individuals without respect to their own merits, as in the instances of the Israelites and Jacob. But he still contends that election to eternal life is conditional and not absolute, and draws a line of distinction between election to outward privileges, which he appears to admit to be absolute, and the election to eternal life, which in his opinion must be conditional in order to render it consistent with a state of trial. With this distinction in view, he examines the several passages that have been urged in support of the Calvinistic doctrine of absolute election, and contends that they are capable of a clear explanation upon his own principles. He also endeavours to prove that the admission of the conditions does not in any way militate against the decrees of God whose purposes are fully executed by the salvation of those who comply with the conditions. The supposed danger and fallacy of the doctrine of absolute assurance are also strongly pointed out.

Without at all becoming parties in the controversy, or expressing any opinion of our own, we have given a concise view of the author's object and arguments. These arguments appear to us to be urged with a great deal of strength, closeness and perspicuity. The young theologian will find here many difficult passages of scripture ably and clearly explained, but he will do well to beware of being carried away by the love of controversy which is always unpleasant and in general the most unprofitable of studies. D.

The History of Cornwall: Civil, Religious, Architectural, Agricultural, Commercial, Biographical, and Miscellaneous. By the Rev. R. Polwhele, *of Polwhele, and Vicar of Manaccan.* 2 *vols.* 4*to. pp.* 436. *Cadell and Davies.*

We find it somewhat difficult to convey to our readers such an idea of this work as may, while it does justice to the author, excite their curiosity to become better acquainted with his labours. We have seldom seen a work of its apparent importance sent into the world with less ceremony. Here is neither

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preface, prospectus, table of contents, nor any documents by which we can learn how far the author means to proceed We shall therefore briefly state that the first volume contains, BOOK FIRST, or the history from Cæsar to Vortigern: this is sub-divided into eleven chapters, the titles of which are—1. Civil and military transactions: 2. Civil and military constitution; 3. Religion; 4. Civil and military and religious architecture; 5. Woodland, pasturage, agriculture, gardens; 6. Mining; 7. Manufactures; 8. Commerce; 9. Language, literature, learned men; 10. Inhabitants, population; 11. Manners and usages. Twenty-three plates of monuments, antiquities, &c. are bound up with this volume, but without any references to the pages, and if we are not mistaken, must be arranged in some future part of the work. Volume second contains BOOK THE SECOND, or rather a part of it, as we have only four chapters, under the titles—1. Civil and military transactions; 2. Civil and military constitution; 3. Religion; 4. Civil and military and religious architecture. This book, we ought to add, carries down the history from Vortigern to Edward I. The arrangement of subjects will, we presume, be the same throughout the whole as is laid down in the first volume, but the peculiar obscurity of the periods already treated, must, as our author seems to allow, render the present specimen interesting only to a very few. We discover in it abundance of laudable research, of judicious conjecture, and often of successful decision in contested points, but we must at the same time complain that we are overwhelmed with notes and quotations, the substance of which, if necessary, should have been incorporated with the text, and confirmed by a simple reference to the originals, or, what is not unusual in county history, thrown into the form of appendices. If the work is carried on with a proportional degree of minute research in each of the subjects, its extent must be very great and necessarily accompanied with a labour and perseverance which we trust the public will encourage, and which is always worthy of patronage, but could wish the author had taught his purchasers what they may expect. The only hint of this kind occurs in the dedication to the Prince of Wales. "In the execution of its extensive plan, I am conscious, there are great defects. But as this plan is chronological, it may be justly deemed an outline to be improved hereafter, as opportunity may offer, and to be continued through future times. And if at the termination of my labours I descend to the present race, may I be allowed to anticipate in fancy, period after period; whilst 'the Cornwal library,' still accumulating its stores of learning, shall enable my successors to add volume to volume, for generations yet unborn." R.

The Political Proteus, a View of the Public Character and Conduct of R. B. Sheridan, Esq. By William Cobbett. *London.* 8vo. *Budd.*

Were it not for the explanation which follows the title of *the Political Proteus*, we should at first sight have been apt to suppose that the appellation referred to the materials of which the volume is composed, as we formerly had met with them in a weekly pamphlet price 10*d*, although they now appear, with a few additions and ekings-out, in the more respectable form of an octavo, at the moderate price of seven shillings. This shews a happy knack of seizing the opportunity to turn a thing to account when there is any chance it will take; and as this is not the only instance of our author's dexterity in that way, it justifies our adding a laudable prudential economy in literary labours to his many other good qualities which are about to fall under our consideration.

To some persons who read the work before us, as well as the weekly pamphlet from which it is extracted, it may appear strange that an individual should sedulously and unremittingly employ himself in the occupation of tearing to pieces not only the public, but even the private characters of almost every person who has rendered himself in any degree conspicuous by his talents, or who is generally known from the station he holds in life. This proceeds from the ignorance of those persons, who do not perceive the minute springs which keep the English constitution in equable motion. Since the period of our glorious revolution, to prevent the national spirit from stagnating, and the zeal of patriots from waxing cold, there have started up from time to time certain useful persons, who, from their offices, may be denominated *public railers*. It is the business of these persons to rouse the people, as they call it; that is, to set the whole nation in a ferment; to distract all the old women and men resembling them with terrible apprehensions of impending danger; and to diffuse a general belief that unless the existing ministers, whoever they are, be tost topsy turvy out of their places, and certain other persons substituted in their room, the country will immediately be swallowed up by some tremendous and inevitable destruction. There is no particular set of political principles, to which it is necessary for a *public railer* to adhere; nor indeed is it necessary that he should have any principles at all; all that is requisite is, that he should fix upon some prominent topics of declamation, and contrive to load with scandalous imputations, every public character who seems to hold different opinions to himself.

At the commencement of the last century, Dr. Sacheverel, the *public railer* of the day, contrived to preach the English nation almost into hysterics; and to persuade them that the Earl of Godolphin was busy in picking their pockets, and the Duke of Marlborough preparing to finish the work by blowing church and state in the air. About the middle of the century, however, this honourable office was filled by several distinguished personages much about the same time. The cuts and thrusts of Junius, who railed in writing from behind a veil, continue, from the many strong truths intermixed with them, to be admired, after the objects of his attacks have almost ceased to excite any interest. John Wilkes, who both wrote and harangued like a most lusty railer, made no small noise in his time; and it is difficult to say how long he might have kept the public spirit in a proper state of agitation, had not he found it convenient to change his occupation, and to pour oil on the waves he had formerly set in motion. No one however has filled this office more respectably, or with more perseverance and industry, than the author of the volume before

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us. After having served his apprenticeship to the business in America, where he carried it to as great an extent as a republican government could admit of, he transferred his labours to the easy monarchy of Great Britain, which is the only government in the world that can let a railer say what he pleases without even feeling sore. Mr. C. has not indeed the gift of the tongue, like his predecessor Wilkes; but his weekly pamphlet exhibits a much more regular and methodical system of railing than any hitherto presented to this admiring kingdom. His plan besides keeping the ball continually flying, has the further advantage of turning railing to good private account, and enabling him to derive something comfortable from the fruits of his industry.

The particular principles, or rather vantage-grounds, which Mr. C. has fixed upon, are a praise-worthy devotion to a faction whose leaders condescendingly stooped to associate with him; an inveterate antipathy to the present ministers and all who conspire to deprive his own faction of the emoluments of office, or who outshine him and them in talents; a profound admiration of the born-gentlemen, the old landed aristocracy; an utter contempt of the commercial interests, the shop-keepers as he calls them, of Great Britain; and a most invincible and outrageous hatred to the whole popular part of the constitution. These vantage-grounds however, are occasionally relinquished for more convenient stations, when any point is to be gained: Mr. Fox, for example, the leader of the popular party, was of course branded as something too monstrous to be allowed to exist; and indeed the Political Register acquired no little share of its notoriety from an attempt to shew that this statesman had gone over to France with the view of gaining Bonaparte's assistance to make him prime-minister: yet since things have become a little altered, and Windham and Fox have begun to hug in the House of Commons, Mr. C. appears to have discovered that this very traitorous person may be allowed to exist and even be caressed without danger, at least till a point be served. In like manner our author's devotion to the monarch on the throne, and his ineffable veneration of the kingly prerogative, are ever in his mouth; yet he has given no signs of any intention to oppose a meditated junction of aristocrats, democrats, old men, new men, and in short all out of employ or prospects, to force an administration on our venerable monarch in his declining years; because there is reason to suppose that his own friends, and perhaps he himself, will have a share of the loaves and fishes.

Our limits will not allow us to enter at large into the merits of Mr. C's. plans, or to point out the many ingenious contrivances he has fallen upon to keep the attention of the public awake to his Journal, when the subject of ministers has become nauseous and soporific. Among these we may reckon an attempt to set two regiments by the ears about a pair of colours, a denunciation of vengeance on the post-office which made the clerks of that establishment quake many weeks for their pockets, and some squibs and crackers levelled at the Rev. Rowland Hill and his round-house in Blackfriars-road.

But it is needless to travel out of our way in order to find instances of Mr. C's. uncommon fitness for the office he has assumed; the volume before us affords ample examples. There is indeed a peculiar piquancy in its contents, as private feeling appears here to have come in aid of public zeal. Mr. Windham, in the house of commons, had declared our author's labours merited no less a reward than *a statue of gold:* this, we assure our readers, was done in good earnest, and with no intention to burlesque, although Mr. W's. talent at irony is well known, and the subject of statues so well deserved its exercise. Mr. Sheridan, having never heard of such a reward for Mr. C's. sort of services, began to remonstrate on the occasion, and to point out certain parts of them, which an unhappy editor afterwards, to the danger of his bones, declared to be worthy of a very different reward. Mr. Sheridan's presumption on this occasion was not to be forgotten; that gentleman had besides been guilty of many other grievous offences; he had made merry with the diagonal motions of the new opposition, and had actually struck mute a noble orator of great power of fist, and a learned gentleman of the robe, whose lungs yield to none of his peers either in the loudness or length of the sounds they produce. Add to this that Mr. S. had acquired much popularity from his encomiums on the noble and patriotic spirit displayed by the British nation at this crisis, and that he has attained universal celebrity as one of the first orators and first wits of the age. Such accumulated offences could not fail to draw on him the vengeance of our author; and he was accordingly selected as a proper object whereon to hang a whole series of letters in the Political Register.

Among the many objects of admiration with which these letters abound, there is no one which strikes us more than the *modest assurance* with which our author steps forward to proclaim his own merits, and of course to assert his title to the golden statue. Of some observations which he wrote in the Political Register on the occasion of a sedition among the Newcastle colliers, and which peradventure may have reached the ears of these subterraneous gentlemen, he speaks thus to Mr. Sheridan; "The above essay is a *mere trifle;* I claim very little merit on account of it; but I sincerely believe, that it has produced more good to the country, than *all the best parts of all the speeches* that you ever uttered in your life, to say nothing of the vast overbalance of the bad parts." What must have been the effect of those writings of Mr. Cobbett's which are *not* trifles, (if such there be,) those on which he himself sets a value! They must surpass "all Greek, all Roman fame;" we doubt they must even surpass the eloquence of Mr. Windham!

There is however another instance of *modest assurance* which does no discredit even to the former. A separate piece, subjoined to the letters in this volume, is employed in discussing what our author emphatically calls Mr. Sheridan's "*fine speech;*" and here Mr. C discovers that whatever was "just, happy, apt, or fine" in this speech was pilfered and purloined by Mr. S. from the Political Register, the Porcupine Newspaper, &c.!!!

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The answers which our author makes to the charges

brought forward by Mr. Sheridan and Mr. Archdall, in diminution of his title to a golden statue, are remarkably in character. He had not as Mr. Arehdall alleged, attempted to awaken the hopes of the enemy by his representations of the weakness of Ireland; he had indeed stated that it was incapable of resisting a small hostile force either by sea or land; but he had not done this to awaken the hopes of the enemy; he had merely done it for the information of government, to whom he therefore whispered the matter through the very private channel of the Political Register. In the same manner, nothing could be farther from Mr. C.'s intention than to excite a mutiny in the navy; he only published in his weekly pamphlet a letter pointing out all the *just* causes of complaint which the discontented sailors had against government. He had indeed recommended to apply "a spunge to the national debt;" but this was not, as Mr. S. represented, to recommend "a violation of public faith," because he (Mr. C.) was of opinion that this step was now become necessary.

The charges which our author brings against Mr. Sheridan, are altogether of a piece with his defence of himself. One of the heaviest is, that Mr. S. never fails to be on the popular side of the question. We are afraid that Mr. S.'s friends will be apt to construe this censure into the highest applause of him; and to alledge that the statesman who is borne out in his sentiments by the feelings of a free nation will rarely have to repent of them. Mr. C.'s detestation of the people at large, and their opinions, however, may well make him think he has here adduced a very heavy charge; and he follows it up by the accusation that Mr. S. was actually guilty of applauding and paying court to "that *rabble of volunteers* whom Mr. C. despises;" that he praised the abilities of Bonaparte as a general, and that he afterwards endeavoured on the renewal of war, to stimulate the national ardour to repel the First Consul's plans of invasion; that he charms the galleries of the House of Commons by his wit, and that his dramatic writings have brought over the whole London periodical press to his side. His having written popular plays seems indeed to be looked upon as a most unpardonable offence; 'tis a thing Mr. C. never did in his life, and we venture to predict, never will do while he exists.

After these specimens our readers will excuse us for not stating more of the weighty reasons which our author gives for being wrath with the object of his attack; and for not quoting the many scraps adduced from the newspaper reports to shew that Mr. S. approved of peace when it could be procured, and declared for war when it could not be avoided; that he spoke loudly against abuses in times of public tranquillity, and deprecated such discussions when the safety of the nation was at stake. Throughout the whole volume Mr. C. proves, beyond all contradiction, his great talents for filling the above-mentioned office to which his labours so justly intitle him. Not only does he see all the actions of his adversary in the very worst light, but he will not allow him credit even for those which cannot be attributed to any but a praise-worthy motive. Speaking of Mr. Sheridan's admired intrepidity and manly effusions of patriotic eloquence during the mutiny at the Nore, he says in the course of his observations, "but were I to admit that you then acted from motives perfectly laudable, an admission which *I shall never make, &c.*" This is in the very highest style of determinate *railing*, and does infinite credit to the author.

Mr. C. shews peculiar talents as a commentator, when an opportunity offers. In commenting on the celebrated speech of Rolla, he undertakes to shew that those parts which were applauded by the nation as highly patriotic and loyal are quite of an opposite nature. For example, on the sentiment, "the throne we honour is the people's choice," Mr. C. observes—"this is the doctrine of *cashiering kings*, and choosing others in their stead, a doctrine which the vile rabble delight in, but which every man of sense and of loyalty turns from with horror, as from the source of disobedience and rebellion." The justice of this commentary can only be equalled by the admirable principles it contains. If Mr. C. could only succeed in persuading our sovereign (which God in his mercy will avert) that his throne is not founded on the people's choice, we might speedily look to see the scenes of the seventeenth century renewed in this unhappy land. Mr. C.'s wishes might indeed at all events be gratified; for if the people proved themselves the stronger party, they might force Mr. Windham, Dr. Lawrence, or what ministers they pleased on their sovereign; and if the monarch succeeded in asserting his indefeasible right to the throne by main force, Mr. C. would then be gratified by seeing him surrounded with triple guards, bastilles, and lettres de cachet, with all those other beauties of royalty to which the humble sovereigns of the House of Hanover have never aspired.

After having thus done justice, as far as the limits of our paper will allow to the merits of Mr. Cobbett, it only remains for us to declare that he has certainly proved Mr. Sheridan a *Political Proteus*, if this title be merited by Mr. S. in concert with the British people, continually turning away from and avoiding such principles as Mr. C. glories in adopting. He has also proved himself to be deserving of the golden statue, if unwearied perseverance in the honourable functions of *public railer*, as we have described them above, deserves such a reward. We have no doubt that the British public will give due encouragement to his merits, and that the Political Register will continue to afford him food and raiment, and raise him in his own opinion to a rank in literature equal to the author of the School for Scandal. Ω.

"*The Year of Sorrow*," *written in the Spring of* 1803. *By* W. R. Spencer. 4*to. Cadell and Davies.*

"The Year of Sorrow," is a sort of elegy upon several persons male and female, friends of the author. These dying in the course of the year 1803, naturally called upon the author's muse to mark that year, as a "year of sorrow." Among the great number of doleful ditties of this nature which annually issue from the press, the present is distinguished by the superiority of the type, the glossy beauty of the paper, and greatness of the price. In other respects, it may prove a formidable rival to the Gosport tragedy, or any other dismal ballad which is hawked about the streets. The author particularly laments the death of

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a lady of the name of Eliza who first smiled upon the efforts of his virgin muse; but this circumstance certainly conveys no very high idea either of her taste or judgement. If she was possessed of either of these qualities, the author is under very little obligation to her for encouraging him to persevere in a course in which, every second line of this poem is a proof he was never calculated to rise even to mediocrity. It is easy to conceive how a man of rank and property, (the author is nephew to the Countess of Pembroke) may, by the praises of interested flatterers, be led to expose himself to the impartial world; and therefore it is his own duty as well as that of his real friends, who are anxious that he should maintain a character for good sense, to take care lest the fawning sycophant should induce him to mistake the *desire* to excell in any particular study for the *talent*. Much may be allowed for the partiality of friendship, much for the ordinary reader or rather observer, who, dazzled by the exquisite skill of the artist in a most beautiful device in the title page, is willing to overlook the defects of the poem. The author appears to have understood the jingle of rhyme, but beyond this he seems to have had no conception even of the music of verse. The whole work may be described as a tame, tedious, lagging piece of rhyming prose, which must instantly sicken every admirer of genuine poetry. It is needless to produce instances, as it is hardly possible to read any six lines in the whole poem without being struck with the justice of the criticism. Let it however be observed, that circumstances may occur in which their friends might chuse to encourage the *cacoethes scribendi* in many young *honourables*, in order, as the phrase is, to keep them out of harm's way: besides, the desire of excelling in a liberal art is in itself a laudable ambition. But a young man in this situation owes it to himself to examine well whether his productions are such as will do him honour, before he ushers them into the world; and his friends do not understand their duty if they are negligent in this respect. Whatever the nature of a person's works may be, he may circulate them among his private relations and friends, who may, from partiality or other motives, be disposed to endure, if not to admire them: but their merit should be well ascertained before they are sent into the world. Some may perhaps think that there is no harm whatever in the deluge of nonsense that is regularly poured among mankind, because those who do not approve, are under no compulsion to read. But it ought to be recollected that while the number of useless publications is so great, it becomes a work of some difficulty to separate the *tares* from the *wheat*, and there is no small danger of many a gem being for ever buried under dunghills of trash. We ought, however, to observe in justice to the author of the poem under consideration, that there appears nothing in it which can lead to the conclusion that he is possessed of no talents. But in poetry he may be assured that, judging from this specimen, there is not a ray of hope that he can ever excell. He may make a historian, a senator, a lawyer, or a general, but if he understands what is due to himself and his reputation with those whose praise alone is fame, he will abandon the idea of excelling as a poet. D.

Letters from France in 1802. *By* Henry Redhead Yorke, *Esq.* 2 *vols.* 8*vo.* *Symonds.*

Most of these letters, we believe, have already appeared in one of the diurnal prints. They are supposed to have been written in 1802, while the author was at Paris. Mr. Yorke, it is generally known, served in the French armies at the beginning of the revolution, and when he came to this country was a furious democrat. But from the time of his imprisonment in Maidstone jail, his politics became more moderate and rational or rather perhaps he, like a great many sudden converts, fell into the opposite extreme. We are far from intending to insinuate that Mr. Yorke's conversion was not sincere. On the contrary, we are inclined to think that it was; for the progress of the French revolution, certainly afforded ample reason for a change of opinion in those who looked upon it with partiality. Yet Mr. Yorke complains in the preface that there are some who to this day, are not satisfied with the sincerity of his conversion. These observations are material, only as far as they tend to throw some light on the statements and opinions in the work under consideration. The author from his situation at the commencement of the revolution, had an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the views and characters of those who had acted conspicuous parts in that horrid drama. Upon his return to France, during the peace, it was natural to expect that he would be enabled to procure some important information from his local knowledge, as well as from his acquaintance with many of those who occupy the highest situations in the present government of France. The expectations of the reader are accordingly raised to a considerable pitch at the beginning by some inuendos in the preface, both as to the importance of the political information conveyed in these letters, and as to that which the author intends to communicate. With regard to the latter part, it is impossible to give any opinion, till the public shall be in possession of it, but as to the former we were, it must be confessed, most egregiously disappointed. There has seldom occurred a more complete illustration of the *parturiunt montes, nascetur ridiculus mus*. With all the author's pretensions, we learn nothing from him, more than might easily have been communicated by an ordinary traveller. We have an account of the manner of travelling between Calais and Paris, the expences, the insolence of the waiters, the extortion of post-boys, the appearance of the country near the road, and the extravagant charges of some landlords. We are also informed that many members even of the French legislature are dissatisfied with the present government of France, and that some officers of the army make no scruple to call Bonaparte "the little corporal." Some account is also given of the hospitals, theatres, and the different places of amusement in Paris, but of all these we have had constant information in almost every publication that has appeared on the same subject, since the treaty of Amiens. The author mentions some conversations with several French officers, from which it would appear that they are by no means satisfied with the present state of things in France, he ridicules the dumb and formal sittings of the tribunate and

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legislative body, where the members listen to long elaborate speeches which are read by the orators of government, and then vote like so many automatons. But still there is nothing new, nothing that can at all answer the expectations which were raised at the commencement of the work. Besides, the author like the generality of new converts, appears so anxious to place the French in a ridiculous light, and to find fault with every thing that came within his observation, that it is impossible not to entertain some doubts of his impartiality. He always holds up the dark side of the picture; for instance, a crowd of beggars surrounded his post-chaise, and therefore he concludes that all the French peasantry are beggars: the country about the road from Calais to Paris is uncultivated, therefore France is a wilderness; the French are both in appearance and character mere ourang outangs, dancing monkeys, the lightness of whose heads and heels is rivalled only by the atrocity of their hearts. The French are in short, monsters of corruption, the basest and most abject of slaves, governed by monsters still more atrocious than themselves. Of David the painter, he observes, that he never talks of politics without a sigh of regret, not for the many victims he sent to the scaffold, but because those glorious days of philosophical bloodshed are now no more. Thus we find our author constantly holding up to view the dark side of the French character. Many of the traits we admit may be very just however, but at the same time little dependance is to be placed upon the statements of a person whose zeal on one side of the cause, shews that he is a party and not a judge. We think it unnecessary to give a more minute analysis of the contents of this book, as it contains nothing more than what has already appeared in a variety of publications. What the author may have in store we know not, but he threatens us with some extraordinary information at a future period. We can only observe, that as far as the present work is concerned, he seems to have awakened curiosity merely with a view to disappoint it. D.

Observations made at Paris during the Peace. By Edmund John Eyre. *Longman and Rees.*

The author of this work, after the conclusion of the late war, was one of the multitude who flocked to Paris. Like many of his brother travellers, he resolved that the world should benefit by his observations, and accordingly the work under consideration was prepared for the press. He commences by giving us a sketch of those idle people who leave their country, and go abroad. These people, he observes, according to an ingenious author, may be divided into idle, lying, proud, vain, splenetic or inquisitive travellers, among which last class the son of Thespis (for our author is an actor) ranks himself. He carries his readers by the usual route to Calais, over which in truth, we have been so often obliged to travel, that we are almost as tired of it, as a post-horse is of his never varying stage. Having landed us on the other side of the water, the author thinks it incumbent upon him to favour us with a short sketch of the latter part of the history of France. He then brings us acquainted with the coins of France, and their value in English money, not forgetting the laws, and prices of posting from Calais to Paris. Having also given an account of the present division of time in France, and made several observations on the different places through which he passed, he at length sets us down at Paris. We are then conducted to every quarter of the city, where there is any thing to attract the attention of the curious. The buildings of note are of course described; and the various other objects, which afford inexhaustible matter to the authors of descriptions of Paris; who appear to think that their readers can never be fatigued by descriptions of this sort, though repeated a thousand times. Our author informs us, that among the other curiosities of Paris, is a temple of Cloacina, built for the accommodation of the public in the *Palais Royal*, by a judicious speculator, who gains a revenue of £200 by his ingenuity. Being rallied one day on his means of acquiring this income, he drew a *louis*-from his purse and, as Vespasian silenced the impertinence of his son, asked whether it *smelt amiss*. A list is given of the most celebrated *Restaurateurs* with the places of their abode, and also a bill of fare for one day, in one of these houses, which is extraordinary for its length. The author also gives a list of the performers at the different theatres of Paris, with criticisms upon the merits of each. We are also informed of the situations of the theatres, with the several prices of admission. The museums, colleges, churches and hospitals, come under the author's review, of each of which a short history and description is given. Of the hospital of the Invalids, our author speaks in high terms, and the account of it is accompanied with the sentimental story of a blind soldier, who survived the slaughter of the Invincibles in Egypt. This we would have given to our readers, were we not of opinion that it was manufactured in England. Let any person therefore frame a story in his own imagination, of a soldier blinded by the sands of Egypt; let him, to help his fancy, take an occasional peep at Sterne, and with a very little pains, he may produce a tale as entertaining as that of our author. A description is given of the national museum of Natural History, the swimming academy, and all the principal schools, of the manufactories of various sorts established at Paris, of the public walks around it, the circulating libraries and the Journals. The author then gives a very cursory view of the objects which he met with on his return to England, by the way of Dieppe, which concludes the book.

We have thought it totally unnecessary to give any extracts from this work, as it is altogether comparatively of trifling importance. From the account of the objects described, among which we forgot a washerwoman's bill, the reader will observe, that the work, though containing little or nothing of interest, yet gives information of many things, a knowledge of which, will be extremely useful to those who may afterwards travel in France. But this is the utmost boundary of its utility; as in the sentimental stories which are introduced, the affectation of imitating Sterne is so palpable, that it almost entirely deprives them of interest. D.

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List of New Publications from March 16, to April 2, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, TRAVELS, &c.

Celtic Researches, on the Origin, Traditions, and Language of the Ancient Britons with some introductory Sketches of primitive Society. By Edward Davies, Curate of Olveston. royal 8vo. (*) *12s. 6d.*

An Excursion in France and other Parts of the Continent of Europe from the cessation of Hostilities 1801 to 13th Dec. 1803, including a Narrative of the unprecedented Detention of the English Travellers in that Country as Prisoners of War. By Charles Maclean, M.D. 8vo. (*) *6s.*

The Costume of the Hereditary States of the House of Austria, displayed in 50 coloured Engravings, with Descriptions and an Historical Introduction. By M. Bertrand de Moleville. imperial 4to. *6l 6s.*

The History of France. By Alexander Ranken, DD. Vol. III. containing the Work from the Accession of Hugh Capet, A. D. 987, to the Succession of St. Lewis, A.D. 1226. (*) *7s.*

The History of the Collegiate Church of Howden. By J. Savage. 8vo. *1s.*

Highmore's History of the Hon. the Artillery Company. 8vo.

This history extends from the time of William of Normandy to the present day, and forms a large 8vo volume. Ample matter is furnished by a discussion on arms and heraldry, by shrewd conjectures as to the import of the term *Artillery* and things of similar importance, for nearly one half this volume. From the accession of George the Second to the present time materials were supplied for the other half. The present reign indeed has been fertile of resources for historians of this nature. Addresses with the answers, speeches of female orators at the presentation of colours, speeches from commanders and so forth may be collected from a file of newspapers, and lo, a history!! History appears now to be degraded to so low a state that our posterity will scarcely understand what our ancestors meant by the word. After all, this swoln account of the Artillery Company springs from a motive of vanity which though perhaps ridiculous is yet excusable. It is only to be hoped that other companies will not imitate the example, otherwise the world will be filled with nothing else than histories of companies.

POLITICS.

Thoughts on the Effects of the Bank Restrictions. By Lord King. 2nd edit. Enlarged, including some Remarks on the Coinage. 8vo. *3s. 6d.*

A Letter to the Right Hon. Lord King, in Defence of the Conduct of the Directors of the Banks of England and Ireland. With Remarks on the Cause of the great Rise of the Exchange between Dublin and London, and the Means of equalizing it. By Henry Boase. *2s.*

We shall hereafter enter fully into the subject of these two pamphlets in our *political* department.

The Reply of a Near Observer to some of the Answerers of the Cursory Remarks. (*) *3s. 6d.*

A General Review of Men and Measures, occasioned by Remarks of near and accurate Observers, Plain Answers, and Replies to Plain Answers, &c. By A More Distant Observer, out of the Vortex of Party. (*) *2s.*

The Letters of Valerius, on the State of Parties, the War, the Volunteer System, and most of the Political Topics which have lately been under public Discussion. *2s. 6d.*

Originally published in the *Times*.

The Speech of Thomas Plomer, Esq. Addressed to the Committee of the House of Commons in the last Session of Parliament, to whom a Bill to Repeal certain Regulations and Restrictions contained in various Acts of Parliament had been referred, relating to the Woollen Trade. *1s. 6d.*

List of the Volunteer and Yeomanry Corps of the United Kingdom. To which are added, the complete Regulations for the Volunteer Establishment as issued by his Majesty's Secretaries of State. *3s.*

A Letter to Robert Ward, Esq. M. P. occasioned by his Pamphlet, intitled, a View of the Relative Situations of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington. (*) *3s.*

A Brief Statement of the Public Benefits which will probably result from the Establishment of an Asylum for Out-Casts; with a concise Account of the Institution proposed. *6d.*

THEOLOGY.

Sermons, and other Miscellaneous Pieces. By the late Henry Hunter, D.D. to which are prefixed a Biographical Sketch of his Life, and a Critical Account of his Writings. 2 vols. 8vo. (*) *18s.*

Sermons on Public Occasions, and a Letter on Theological Subjects; by Robert, late Archbishop of York; to which are prefixed Memoirs of his Life. By George Hay Drummond, A. M. with a Portrait. 8vo. (*) *6s.*

Sermons on several Subjects and Occasions. By George Vanburgh, LL. B. 8vo. *5s.*

These Sermons appear to have been all composed for extraordinary occasions. There is nothing new or striking either in the sentiments or the style, but their good sense and perspicuity justly intitles them to a considerable share of approbation.

A Sermon preached at St. Asaph, on the Ordination of the Right Rev. the Lord Bishop of St. Asaph. By Heneage Horseley, A.M. *1s. 6d.*

This Sermon preached from the words, "Whose soever sins ye remit," &c. is intended to convey a high idea of the power committed by Christ to the church for reclaiming sinners. The manner in which the author treated the subject at the commencement of his discourse, excited some degree of astonishment, for it appeared that he was about to claim for the church, the same extravagant powers which the Roman catholic clergy have arrogated to themselves under the words which form the ground of his sermon, and even after all his modifications at the end, he informs us that the ministers of the church are the *only* channel by which benefits can be derived to its members, and that whoever does not receive these benefits in this manner, his sins are retained. The meaning of the author is certainly not very clear either in this or in other passages, and as we are sincere friends to church discipline rationally exercised, we shall avoid any particular remarks on the above, lest we should charge the author with opinions, which, perhaps, he never meant to carry to their full extent. It is

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impossible, however, not to deprecate the ill-judged practice of citing texts, and extracting notions from them which they were never intended to convey. The greatest enemy of any establishment is perhaps the partizan whose zeal is not guided by discretion.

Thoughts on the Calvinistic and Arminian Controversy. By George Stanly Faber, B. D. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The object of this pamphlet appears to be to point out the excellency and moderation of the articles of the Church of England. He first displays a system purely Calvinistic, and then another purely Arminian, and concludes that the creed of the Church of England belongs to neither, but is founded only on Scripture. It is pleasing to observe that controversy has now lost much of that asperity by which it was formerly distinguished, and that an endeavour to convince has in some measure succeeded in the place of railing. In the impartial examination of any controversial work, it would be improper to state any particular opinion of our own on the subject matter of the controversy, as the critic is, or ought to be, a judge and not an advocate. Considering the merits of the pamphlet as a view of the articles of the church of England, as they bear upon the Arminian and Calvinistic doctrines, it is close in its reasoning, perspicuous in its style, and on the whole very well executed.

Letters on the Atonement. By Charles Jefram, A. M. 2*s.* 6*d.*

The Trial of the Spirits; a seasonable Caution against Spiritual Delusion, in three Discourses. By the Rev. Charles Daubeny. 2*s.* 6*d.*

This publication consists of two discourses, the one of which treats of the manner in which the spirit operates in the conversion of a Christian, and the other, of the test by which it may be known whether a person be regenerated. They are both directed against the absurd pretensions of fanatics to superior piety and inspiration. The sermons are written with a great deal of good sense and discrimination, but are deficient in precison.

LAW.

Another important Trial with the West India Dock Company, A. Wallace and Co. *v.* George Smith, Esq. Treasurer to the said Company, relative to an Order, dated Oct. 25, 1800, prohibiting Brokers and Agents from following their accustomed Business—including the Substance of Mr. Garrow's Speech. 1*s.*

SCIENCE, MEDICINE, AGRICULTURE, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy. vol. 9. 4to. 1*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.*

A Practical Essay on the Analysis of Minerals, exemplifying the best Modes of Analysing Ores, Earths, Stones, Inflammable Fossils, and Mineral Substances, in General. By Frederic Accum. 12mo. (*) 7*s.*

Pharmacopœia Medici Practici Universalis. Auctore F. Swediaur, M. D. 2 vols. 18mo. 7*s.*

Elements of Materia Medica, and Pharmacy. By John Murray. 2 vols. 8vo. 14*s.*

An Inquiry into the Laws of Chemical Affinity; by C. L Berthollet. Translated from the French, by M. Farrell, M. D. 8vo. (*) 7*s.*

An Account of a painful Affection of the Nerves of the Face, commonly called the Douloureux. By S. Fothergill, M. D. 8vo. 3*s.*

Communications to the Board of Agriculture, on the best Means of converting Grass Lands into Tillage, &c. &c. being the Third Volume of Communications to the Board. 4to. (*) 18*s.*

A General View of the Agriculture of Shropshire; with Observations. Drawn up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By Joseph Plymley, M. A. Archdeacon of Salop, and Honorary Member of the Board. 8vo. (*) 7*s.* 6*d.*

Lepidoptera Britannica; containing the Latin and English Names, a new Arrangement and new Description of various Species of Papilio, Sphinxes, Zygænæ, and Bombyces, with all their Synonyms, Food, Times and Places of Appearance in their different States; an Account of their Peculiarities; and the best Modes of destroying such as are injurious to Mankind. To which are added Botanical Dissertations. By A. H. Haworth, F. L. S. Part I. 8vo. (*) 15*s.*

Flora Britannica; Auctore Jacobo Edv. Smith, M.D. Vol. III. (*) 10*s.* 6*d.*

POETRY.

Sincerity's Offering; an Ode to His Majesty, written during a Period of Public Affliction. By Miss Stockdale. 1*s.*

The Lewes Library Society. By John Button, Junior, of the Classical and Commercial Academy, Cliff, Lewes, 4to. 2*s.* 6*d.*

DRAMA.

The Sea-Side Hero, a Drama, in Three Acts. By John Carr, Esq. 2*s.* 6*d.*

The Counterfeit. A Farce, in Two Acts. By Andrew Franklin. 2*s.*

NOVELS.

Lobenstein Village; from the French of Augustus la Fontaine, 4 vol. 12mo. (*) 14*s.*

Zoflora; or, The Generous Negro Girl; a Colonial Story, 2 vols. 12mo. 7*s.*

This work is composed of the adventures of a young man, who having left France, arrived in St. Domingo, and found that his relation, to whose care he had been consigned, had died, and that his property had been confiscated for the use of the crown. After a series of misfortunes, in the course of which he is assisted by Zoflora, a young negro girl, the fortune of his relation is restored; and the novel concludes as usual by the marriage of the hero to a lady with whom he had, like other heroes, fallen in love. The book is chiefly valuable on account of the view which it gives of the manners of the colonists of St. Domingo, previous to the revolution in France. The story is sufficiently interesting, but there are many objectionable passages arising from the circumstance of the author being one of those hot-brained zealots whom neither experience nor reflection can convince, that morality unless enforced by religion, is little better than an empty sound. The translator (righteous soul) quiets his conscience for having given the passages in question, by a note of lamentation, which puts one in mind of a certain theatrical duellist, who observed, that when once he had shot his antagonist through the head, he would make him any reasonable apology.

The Woman of Feeling. 4 vols. 16*s.*

The Talisman. 2 vols. 7*s.*

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MISCELLANIES.

A Letter to the Rev. William Cockburne, A.M. Occasioned by his Pamphlet relating to Lord Camelford's Death. By one of the Magistrates of the Public-Office in Great Marlborough-street. Signed *Philip Neve*. 8vo. 1*s*.

Though it is not absolutely necessary for a magistrate to understand the beauties of composition, he ought not to offend against some of the common rules of grammar; nor tarnish the high dignity of his character by condescending to abuse his antagonist, and the sacred profession to which he belongs. With Messrs. *Neve* and *Cockburne*, we are perfectly unacquainted; but we have had reason to respect the character of the worthy Son of *Captain Brodie*, and have often heard of the politeness and integrity of *Mr. Conant*. Both these gentlemen are colleagues of *Mr. Neve*; and must feel themselves, and their cause injured, by the Advocate who has so inadvertently come forward in its support. *Mr. Neve* takes the present opportunity not only to asperse the character of all the younger part of the Clergy, but even to cast some insinuation against the conduct of Lord *Camelford*. The language *Mr. Neve* adopts, savours rather of the meridian of Billinsgate;—and when he talks of *hugging a Presbyterian pastor*, we are reminded of the gambols and caresses of a Bear. Surely when *Mr. Neve* so far forgot his high office, as to publish this pamphlet, he was more to blame than *Mr. Cockburne*. An injudicious defender is worse than an open enemy. The respectable characters of *Mr. Brodie* and *Mr. Conant*, did not require the defence of Mr. Neve. Mr. Cockburne has made a very able reply to Mr. Neve, which appeared in the British Press, on Monday, March 26.

Popular Tales. By Maria Edgeworth. 3 vols. 12mo. (*) 15*s*.

Black Agnes, or the Defence of Dunbar, by Agnes Countess of March, in 1338. f. cap. 2*s*.

This poem is intended to rouse the spirit of Britons, by commemorating the glorious defence of Dunbar, by Agnes Countess of March, when besieged by the troops of Edward the Third in 1338. The subject seems, however, not very well chosen, and at any rate the execution is wretched. The work is scarcely swelled to the bulk of a child's hornbook by an account of the siege of Dunbar in prose, and several notes at the end, whilst the poem itself is almost lost in the middle. Without the prose, however, it would have been impossible to have discovered the author's meaning in the *verse* (for it does not deserve to be called poetry). The author no doubt kept in view the ingenious painter, who having painted the figure of a cock, prevented its being mistaken for a sheep, by the shrewd contrivance of writing under it, "This is a cock."

Military Memoirs, relating to Campaigns, Battles, Maxims and Stratagems of War, Ancient and Modern; extracted from the best Authorities: with occasional Remarks. 8vo. (*) 10*s*. 6*d*.

A World of Wit; being characteristic Anecdotes, Bon-mots, &c. of eminent living Persons. By the Hon. Mr. S—n; with Frontispiece. 12mo. 3*s*.

This is a collection of the most striking *bon mots* of some well known characters of the day. Many of them are old and sufficiently hackneyed, some old ones are newly vamped up, and a few are new; most of them are not very worthy of praise either for their delicacy or point.

Observations on the Correspondence between Mr. Adam and Mr. Bowles; with the Correspondence subjoined. By John Bowles, Esq. 1*s*.

The intention of this publication is to vindicate Mr. Bowles from the unfavourable constructions which appear to him to have been made upon his conduct by the late publication of Mr. Adam. He insists that he had reason to consider religion as no ingredient in the virtues of the late Duke of Bedford; that it was therefore dangerous to hold him forth, as was done both in parliament and from the pulpit, as a model for imitation; that from this danger it was his object to defend the public; that such a motive ought to be considered laudable; and that the publication of the correspondence itself has discovered nothing which either tends to render his motives suspected, or the general opinion on which his conduct was founded doubtful.

Observations on Mr. Thelwall's Letter to the Editor of the Edinburgh Review. 2*s*.

Mr. Thelwall's Reply to the Editors of the Edinburgh Review.

Remarks on the Threatened Invasion, and a Proposal for the Relief of the Sick Poor. By Richard Worthington, M.D. 3*s*.

Confessions of Elysium; or, the Adventures of a Platonic Philosopher: taken from the German of C. M. Weiland. By John Battersby Elrington, Esq. 3 vols. 12mo. 12*s*.

Flowers of Literature, for 1803. By the Rev. F. Prevost and F. Blagdon, Esq. 12mo. 6*s*.

This is the continuation of a miscellaneous collection of extracts from various works old and new, principally the latter, with short critiques on the latest publications. In deciding upon the merits of a work, we are to examine its objects and pretensions, and whether it has fully attained the end proposed, without being in its nature of a hurtful tendency. In this point of view the present volume deserves approbation. Its object is amusement without injury to morals, and the execution does not fall short of the design. The attention of the editors to the interests of morality and religion does them honour.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Modern Greek.

Mr. Editor,

M. Coray, a physician in France, who had already distinguished himself as an eminent Greek scholar, by his valuable editions of Hippocrates on Waters, and the characters of Theophrastus, published last year (1802) at Paris, a translation into modern Greek, of Beccaria's celebrated essay on crimes and punishments. The object of the translator who is by birth a Greek, is avowedly to enlighten his countrymen in this important branch of legislation. His dedication is in the form of an altar, with a classical inscription, wishing prosperity to the newly established Greek government of the Seven Isles. In the beginning of the introduction he states a few particulars with regard to the author and his works; that he was born in 1738 at Milan, where he had been settled by the court of Vienna as professor of Political Economy. His essay was first published in 1765, and had soon the honour of being translated into most of the European languages. The style he observes, is in many places obscure; not only from the difficulty of a subject, the knowledge of which implies previously acquired habits of reflection in the reader, but also from the prudence of the author himself; who had to guard against the danger of expressing himself too plainly. On this subject he makes the following just remarks, which though he is himself a republican, will clearly shew

his abhorrence of the excesses too often overlooked, and sometimes even justified by the metaphysical advocates for republican principles. I subjoin the original passage that the learned reader may have an opportunity of observing the similarity which amidst all its corruptions, the language of the present barbarous Greeks still retains to that of their enlightened ancestors.

"Philosophical truths instilled into weak ears without prudent reflection and precaution are attended with a dangerous effect, such as strong food produces on a weak stomach. Whenever the bonds of political union are unfortunately snapped asunder, the very circumstance that they have been wronged leads the injured part of the citizens to conclude that their rights are without limits. They no longer reflect on their past or present misconduct, but direct their attentions unceasingly to their sufferings. Hence the shocking and tremendous evils which formerly accompanied the political convulsions of the Greek Republics; hence also those which we have lately witnessed in the revolution of France. It becomes, therefore, the duty of the philanthropic philosopher, to adopt an enigmatical method of admonishing the great; or at least while he is announcing to them the claims of humanity, to be careful at the same time to instruct the mass of the people, that one act of injustice can never be remedied by another. This is the only true method of enlightening mankind. It was practised by Socrates; and our Italian philosopher has sought to imitate it in many parts of the book.

Ἔχουσιν ἀι φιλοσοφικαι ἀληθειαι τὸν κινδυνον τοῦτον, ὁ ποταν στείρωνται χωρὶς φρόνιμον σκέψιν καὶ προφυλακην εἰς ἀκοὰς ἀσθενεῖς γινωσι δηλαδη τὸ αὐτὸ ἀποτέλεσμα, τὸ ὁποῖον ἡθελαν κάμει εἰς τὸν ἀσθενη στόμαχον τὰ ἰσχυρὰ βρώματα. Ὁταν ἐξ ἀτυχίας διαλυθῶσι τῆς πολιτικῆς κοινωνίας οἱ δησμοὶ, τὸ ἀδικούμενον μέρος τῶν πολιτῶν, δι' αὐτὸ τοῦτο, ὁτι ἀδικεῖται, νομιζει ὁτι ἔχουσιν ὁλα τὰ δικαια. Δὶν προσεχουσι πλέον εἰς ὁσας κακιας ἔπραξαν, ἢ πράττουσιν αὐτοι, ἀλλ' ἀσχολοῦνται εἰς ὁσα πάσχουσι παρὰ τῶν ἄλλων. Ἐντεῦθεν τὰ φρικτὰ καὶ πάνδεινα κακὰ, ὁσα συνοδευσαν τὰς πολιτικὰς μεταβολὰς τῶν Δημοκρατιῶν τῆς Ἑλλαδος, ὁσα ἰδομεν πρὸ μικροῦ εἰς την πολιτικην τῆς Γαλλίας μεταβολήν. Χρεωστεῖ λοιπὸν ὁ φιλάνθρωπος φιλόσοφος νὰ νεθετῇ ἀινιγματωδῶς τοὺς δυνατοὺς, ἢ ἰσως καμπτει την δικαιοσύνην πρὸς αὐτὸς, ἵν ταυτᾷ νὰ διδάσκη καὶ τοὺς ἀδυνάτους, ὁτι ἀι ἀδικιαι δὶν θεραπεύονται μὲ ἄλλας ἀδικίας. Οὐτος εἶναι ὁ μόνος ἀληθὴς τρόπος τῷ νὰ φωτίζη τις τοὺς ἀνθρώπους· τοῦτον μετεχειρίσθη ὁ Σωκράτης καὶ τὸν αὐτὸν εἰς πολλὰ μέρη τῷ βιβλίῳ ἠθέλησε νὰ μιμηθῇ καὶ ὁ Ἰταλὸς φιλόσοφος.

The translator has inserted under the text, several notes by Diderot and Beccaria himself; but has omitted those of Voltaire, as being historical rather than explanatory. His own, which are placed at the end of the essay, and occupy nearly 100 pages printed in a much smaller type, are sometimes employed in explaining the terms of law, but more frequently in introducing the political sentiments of the ancient Greek lawgivers and philosophers. These quotations while they elucidate his author are likewise intended to rouse his countrymen to emulate the glory of their ancestors, by shewing them that the seeds and elements of those sciences which now enlighten Europe, were originally the produce of their own country, and are still preserved in the works of their own writers. "It is our disgrace," he observes with a just indignation, "that while these seeds are sown, cultivated, brought to maturity, and their fruits enjoyed by the labours of foreign nations, we do not even know that they are our ancient property, our inheritance."

In the remainder of his introduction he labours in the same strain, to convince his countrymen, that the light of science is the only effectual remedy for the evils under which they labour. He excites the rich to visit Europe, for the sake of their country; to beware of imitating or importing its selfish enjoyment of riches, its licentious pursuit of pleasure; but to return stored with its knowledge, and the noble ambition of imparting it to their poorer countrymen, by the foundation of schools and libraries, by giving every possible encouragement to learning and learned men. He endeavours to rouse the industry and kindle the zeal of the scholar, by painting in warm colours the gratitude of his country become through his means enlightened and happy, and by appealing to the labours, the honours and the rewards of his ancestors, the renowned philosophers, poets, orators and historians of ancient times.

This spirited address deserves greater attention, as being scarcely more applicable to the ignorance of the Greeks, than to the indolent, luxurious and therefore selfish disposition of those enlightened nations of Europe, which he proposes as models for the imitation of his unhappy and debased countrymen.

The notes are written with perspicuity and force, and contain many valuable observations. But we have perhaps already gone too much into detail, and therefore conclude with observing that the whole publication not only does great honour to the judgement and patriotism of its learned author; but likewise forms a very interesting and important addition to the narrow stock of modern Greek literature. H.

Cambridge.

Mr. Editor,

In a former Number of the Literary Journal, while marking the Progress of English Satire, I had occasion very frequently to comment on the nervous and the witty poetry of Bishop Hall. I now send you the introductory portion of my remarks upon his Satires, a due consideration of which will throw more light on the history of English Poetry during the age of Queen Elizabeth, than may be at first imagined.

Yours,

J.

Remarks on the Virgidemiarum *of* Joseph Hall, *afterwards* Bishop *of* Norwich.

——"Virgaque levem coerces
Aurea turbam." Hor. Carm.

In the prelate, whose satires are here introduced to the reader, the Christian world had a friend of no ordinary value; whose life was uniformly dedicated to the practice and support of virtue. As a Divine, however, he is better known than as a Poet. For the spirit of poetry is too often suffered to evaporate with the fashion of its time; while with fashion, moral and religious truths bear no connection; they are constant and immutable, and depend not on the notions of

men. That as a satyrist our author should fall into neglect we are not to wonder, since of all human compositions, wit and satire are the most perishable, they usually die with the age they laboured to reform; and future times seldom disturb their ashes but to notice some custom that time has worn from memory.

From the Satires to which our observations are derected, Bishop Hall's poetic character must be gathered, and if the reader is unwilling to consider his muse in the most exalted point of view, candour will force him to confess that she dwelt not in the lowest regions of Parnassus: at the same time it must be remembered that Satire is a species of Poetry by no means favourable to the highest flights of fancy. As a critic he may be presumed very early in life to have possessed that philosophic spirit, which darts at once to the fundamental principles of composition; which intuitively discovers the native energy of Poetry; and distinguishes the manly efforts from the puerilities of genius. Such are the conclusions drawn from the first book of the Satires, more immediately devoted to the analysis of Poetry; wherein it will be found he criticized not the neglected writers of his age, but those whom the strong charms of original merit had rendered popular; yet who had considerable faults weighing against their beauties; and many of whom had at once extended, adorned and debased the stores of English poetry.

In the age he lived in however, criticism was little encouraged and never professed. His observations too, militated with the ruling passion of his time, for his was

> —" an age that yet uncultivate and rude
> Wher'er the Poet's fancy led pursu'd,
> Thro' pathless fields and unfrequented floods,
> To dens of dragons and enchanted woods."

Learning was but just risen from a long slumber; the fictions of Arabia had not yet quitted their hold; and our national manners had not received that heightened polish so necessary to the admission of legitimate Satire.

For the disadvantages under which he was to labour we find him prepared; we find him also, defying the difficulties he knew himself unable to surmount:

> " Ye luckless rhymes, whom not unkindly spight
> Begot long since of truth and holy rage
> Lye here in wombe of silence and still night
> Untill the broils of next unquiet age:
> That which is others' grave shall be your womb
> And that which bears you your eternal tomb.
>
> Cease ere you 'gin, and ere ye live be dead;
> And die and live ere ever you be borne,
> And be not bore ere ye be buried,
> Then after live, sith you have died beforne.
> When I am dead and rotten in the dust,
> Then gin to live, and leave when others lust.
> * * * * *
> What shall the ashes of my senselesse urn
> Need to regard the raving world above
> Sith afterward I never can return
> To feel the force of hatred or of love.
> Oh! if my soul could see their posthume spight
> Should it not joy and triumph in the sight.*

Thus far have we spoken of him as a critic in *Poetry*; we now turn to the review of his talents when with just and humourous satire he reprehends the degeneracy of learning in other branches. Such is the opening of the second book, which points with no common energy at the professions allied to literature: and its last Satire is spiritedly aimed against judicial astrology. It is worth more than ordinary attention. Of his subject he observes:

> " Some doting gossip 'mong the Chaldee wives
> Did to the credulous world thee first derive;
> And superstition nurs'd thee ever since;
> And publish't in profounder Art's pretence.
> That now, who pares his nail or libs his swine
> But he must first take counsel of the sign.
> So that the vulgars count for fair or foul,
> For living or for dead, for sick or whole."

To combat the prejudices of the age in which we live, it must be owned is an arduous task. And he who reprehends its departure from the learning or the virtue of its ancestors, is seldom to expect its thanks. He must look forward in stedfast hope for the candour of posterity, who will view his censure and his claims free from regard or party.

Many readers may possibly be unaware with how little controul the exploded pretensions of astrology were formerly advanced, and to what lengths they led. The mystic horrors of *Rumic* incantation, it is true, had long fallen; but with fiction and romance the astrologic doctrines of Arabia came amongst us; the restoration of literature only weakened their extravagance; their influence still kept its hold; and long after Hall wrote, ignorance and credulity were not their only shelterers; the throne of James, once the grand prop of literature, supported *them*. The Satire which has given rise to this digression, afterwards became remarkable, as it was attacked with more than puritanic vehemence by Milton, whose positions will hereafter be considered.

From this book we are fully aware that Hall possessed a manliness of thought far above his years or his time. Yet his reprehension of the inferior orders of literature, supplies us with few hints toward his literary character. His remarks are such as ever have been, and must still remain, applicable, as long as feeble authors, ignorant physicians, and dishonest lawyers are found in the world.

From the third book against the moral defection of his age, far more is to be gathered. In the first satire, the times of Arcadian simplicity, without Arcadian hyperbole, are brought to the reader's mind,

> " Time was, and that was term'd the time of gold
> When world and time were young, that now are old,
> (When quiet Saturn sway'd the mace of lead,
> And pride was yet unborn and yet unbred.)"

And toward its close he seems to glance in the spirit of a prophet, at the rising troubles of his country.—Throughout this book we trace the poignancy of honest indignation. Its severities are unaimed at individuals. General reformation is its only object, and its author seems to have felt acutely the false steps his age was taking.—The Satire of this book however, possesses something of Horatian spirit and vivacity; but in the books that follow, he has tracked vice most forcibly in all its Protean shapes, and has marked it

* Defiance to Envy.

with the most deep and indelible characters of reprobation. His intimate and philosophical acquaintance with the satyrists of antiquity is fully evident: nor was his mind impregnated with ancient learning only; it was deeply tinctured with the charms of nature, and surveyed life in philosophic meditation.

Nor in tracing the literary features of our author's character, must I omit four lines which a contemporary poet, Marston, urged against him:

"Cannot some lewd immodest beastliness
Lurk and lie hid in just forgetfulness,
But *Grillus'* subtle smelling swinish snout
Must sent, and grunt, and needs will find it out."

Hall, from the nature of his undertaking, was bound to censure all that offended morality. And his work so far from being a chronicle, is the scourge of corruption. Yet of the poet who thus blames him, I am sorry to observe that among lines on which Milton had an eye when writing L'ALLEGRO, he has interspersed such as do but pander for the passions. Here too an opening offers, to observe that it is in few but the satyrical compositions of the time, that the incentives to irregular desires are recorded. And it is lamentable to think that the books which were designed to correct the depravities of an age, should prove their only vehicles to succeeding times. Were instances required, too many publications of the Elizabethan age are ready to afford them: but decency and humanity alone forbid the exposure. Of these writers, whom virtue will ever hold in execration, Hall has observed, [B. 1. Sat. ix.]

"Our epigrammatarians old and late
Were wont be blam'd for too licentiate.
Chaste men, they did but glance at Lesbia's deed
And handsomely leave off with cleanly speed,
But arts of whoring, stories of the stews,
Ye muses will ye bear, and may refuse."

Nor is it one of the least of Hall's commendations that he has preserved in these satires innumerable pictures of ancient life. He has illustrated the customs and the genius of the age he lived in; has characterised with taste and discrimination its cast of thought, the complexion of its reading, and the current of its poetry; and that no branch of its fashionable literature might be omitted, has even chronicled its festive tales.

How the Satires were received at their first publication, we can gather but a faint account. Our author was complimented on them by Fitz-Geoffrey, an Oxford epigrammatist, in two copies of no very elegant verses.

From the prelates Whitgift and Bancroft, however, they met with a very different reception. In 1599 the hall of the Stationers underwent as great a purgation as was carried on in Don Quixote's library. Marston's Pigmalion, Marlowe's Ovid, the *Satires* of HALL and *Marston*, the Epigrams of Davies and others, and the Caltha Poetarum, were ordered by those bishops for immediate conflagration. By the same authority, all the books of Nash and Gabriel Harvey, were anathematized; and like thieves and outlaws, were ordered *to be taken wheresoever they might be found.*†

† See Warton's Hist. of Poetry iii. 488. from REGIST. STATION. fol. 316. a. b.

With a short view of the editions through which the Satires passed, I shall conclude the Introductory remarks. They were first printed by T. Creede, for R. Dexter, Lond. 1597. 16mo. with this title. "VIRGIDEMIARUM, Sixe booke. First three bookes, of Toothlesse Satyres. 1. Poeticall; 2. Academicall; 3. Morall." In the following year appeared, "Virgidemiarum. The three last bookes of byting Satyres." Printed for R. Dexter, by Rd. Bradocke, 16mo. 106 pages. The next edition of the whole, is "Virgidemiarum, the three last" [in reality all the six] "bookes of the byting Satyres, corrected and amended, with some additions by I. H. Lond. for. R. Dexter, &c. 1599. 16mo." In the edition of 1599, the seventh Satire of the fourth book, with the motto Ρομη Ρυμη, stands as the second satire of the sixth book. The fourth edition, of which the only copy I have seen is in the British Museum, was in 1602, printed by John Harrison, for Rob. Dexter, and contains only the three first books; the three last, which are bound with it, are from the edition of 1599. From this time till 1753, the Satires of Hall remained unnoticed, when they were edited at Oxford by Mr. William Thompson. The few marginal references of the editor in this edition, served but to stimulate the reader's desire for a more intimate acquaintance with the Satires. It was however reprinted verbatim, with Hall's elegy on Dr. Whitaker, in the second volume of Dr. Anderson's Edition of the Poets of Great Britain, 1793.

Mr. Pope we are told, in the preface to the last edition, *saw* these Satires, but so late in life that he could only bestow this commendation on them, to wish he had seen them sooner. Bishop Warburton, however, has supplied us with information somewhat different. Against Pope's satyric writings, a clamour had been raised, as if the *Supplement*, as he calls it to the *Public Laws*, was a violation of morality and society. In answer to this charge, he had it in his purpose to shew, that two of the most respectable characters in the modest and virtuous age of Elizabeth, Dr. Donne and Bishop Hall, had arraigned vice publicly, and shewn it in stronger colours than he had done, whether they found it

"On the pillory, or near the throne."

In pursuance of this purpose, our poet has admirably *versified* as he expresses it, two or three Satires of Dr. Donne. He intended to have given two or three of Bishop Hall's likewise, whose force and classical elegance he much admired; but as Hall was a better versifier, and as a mere academic, had not his vein vitiated like Donne's, by the fantastic language of courts, Mr. Pope's purpose was only to correct a little and smooth the versification. In the first edition of Hall's Satires, which was in Mr. Pope's library, we find that long Satire, called the first of the sixth book, corrected throughout, and the versification mended for his use. He entitles it in the beginning of his corrections *Sat. Opt.*

(To be Continued.)

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MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° VI.

Gestit enim nummum in loculos dimittere; post hoc
Securus, cadat, an recto stet fabula talo. HORACE.

What silly poet heeds the critic's curse?
That play must sure be good which fills the purse.

AMONG the many resources against getting tired of one's self which this metropolis presents to leisurely bachelors of my own description, the theatre is at once the most varied and the most agreeable. To me it seems particularly so; for while I attend to a well-acted comedy or farce, I consider myself as enjoying for a few hours the society of beaux, coquettes, and surly old fellows of fathers, as well as clowns, valets, and waiting-maids, without the ceremony of an introduction, and the insupportable burden of half a dozen formal visits before I am admitted into their family way of life.

My pleasures in this way have indeed of late years been considerably abridged: owing, as a dramatic author of my acquaintance tells me, to the progress of refinement among our writers of plays, and the want of a correspondent improvement in my taste. I now seldom venture to a new comedy till I have heard a pretty full account of its plot and characters; for without this precaution I am in danger of encountering many irksome mistakes and disappointments. When I see Collins or Emery come on the stage in the character of Yorkshiremen, I immediately prepare to be merry at the arch looks and shrewd remarks which so well tally with their accent. In these expectations however, I have been frequently very unfortunate; and have often been much chagrined to have a commencing laugh observed on my countenance by those who sat next me, while my features ought to have discovered a very different expression.

It is not many weeks since I saw a Yorkshireman come on the stage, who from his arch gestures and tones promised not a little merriment. He was interrupted in some pretty well turned repartees by the entrance of a personage who by extravagance and imprudence had reduced himself to his last shilling. I looked for some shrewd replies of the Yorkshireman to this reduced gentleman, who began to set forth his tale; and expected every moment to hear the clown cut his harangue short by observing, "that if he had wrought as hard, and fared as plain as he did, he would never want a guinea in his pocket." To my no small surprize, however, the Yorkshireman listened in solemn silence to the conclusion, when he suddenly thrust his hand into his pocket, pulled out his purse, forced it into the stranger's hand; and wiping the tears from his eyes, exclaimed, "that he was now happy indeed, since he had an opportunity of relieving the distresses of a fellow-creature!" My friend the Vicar had accompanied me that evening to the play. The good man could not help extolling in glowing terms the benevolence of the clown: "pity it is, added he, that we have no such clowns in Wilts!"

There are some players with whose acting I have unfortunately associated such sensations, that I often find it altogether impossible to bring my mind in tune with the sentiments of the piece. When Bannister appears on the stage, I cannot restrain my countenance from a smile. His features, his voice, his manner are all so admirably adapted to display nature in her gayest and most mirthful form, that if the poet gives him but the bare outline of a humorous character, he never fails to make it appear richly coloured in the eyes of the audience. The pleasure with which I have seen this actor keep a full theatre for several hours in the highest spirits, can only be equalled by my chagrin on beholding him compelled, in some of our new dramas, to vent a long ebullition of sentiment, and this with all the gravity imaginable. I have often thought that his countenance sympathized with me on such occasions, and indicated a longing wish to utter these sentiments in a very different tone. I have such an aversion to be solemn or dismal when Bannister acts, that I have of late been very careful to examine the play-bill before I venture to Drury-lane. A sort of heroic pantomime, to which on this account I have ever since borne a grudge, prevented me during a considerable part of last winter from seeing my favourite actor, whom it had exalted into a most sentimental peasant.

I must not here neglect to return my thanks to the managers for the frequency with which *the Country Girl* and *the Devil to Pay* have been repeated. I can assure them that it has brought many to the theatre much oftener than even a twenty-one-night's drama would have done; among others myself and several old fellows of my acquaintance, who cannot sit with patience and hear Mrs. Jordan compelled to draw down her features and make an effort to whine over the mishaps of the human race.

I am not however so churlish as to regret my own loss of pleasure from the new fashions introduced into the drama, since I understand that many and great benefits are likely to arise from them. Garrick's extraordinary powers had so bewitched the public, about thirty or forty years ago, that nothing of common goodness in the way of acting would go down with them; they were not contented unless nature herself was brought before them on the stage. The consequence of this was, that many actors of respectable abilities, (not Garricks indeed) were scarcely able to draw down a single clap from the galleries; and things seemed hastening to such a pass, that no one could presume to enter the lists as a player, who had not the faculty of stepping out of himself, and actually assuming both the body and soul of the beau, clown, or hero he was called upon to personate.

These alarming discouragements to the candidates for dramatic fame, were however quickly removed by the happy invention of making *sentiment* the main part of every character. In consequence of this improvement, any one with a decent figure and a sufficient voice, may aspire to very high dramatic honours. It is not necessary that he should frequent public places, haunt coffee-houses, and mix alike with bucks and draymen, in order to gain a knowledge of life and catch their various modes of action; nor is it necessary that he should study the minute turns of

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the human passions, be able to assume the uneasy demeanour of the lover, all languor, yet all awake to the slightest impression, or to make his voice and looks correspond to the rapid variations by which each passion is attended and characterized. A sentiment, like a song, requires but few gestures, and if a player can only contrive to mouth his words somewhat distinctly, and to throw himself into one of those tragedian attitudes, of which the green-room will supply him with abundance, he is certain, by means of a thundering sentiment, to bring a whole volley of applause from every quarter of the theatre. I could mention several actors who in this way have got so far into the good graces of the audience, as to have a claim to a very comfortable salary: and yet, if the old fashion of copying nature had remained in vogue, they must have been still contented to have acted a very useful part behind the scenes, in the guardianship of the candle-wicks.

The introduction of sentiment may thus be looked upon as similar to those ingenious mechanical inventions, by which the manufacturer is enabled to prepare his commodities with more ease, and bring them to the market with more advantage. As it may now be difficult to trace the original discoverer of the sentimental improvement, the Society for encouraging arts and manufactures ought certainly to vote adequate premiums to those who are at present labouring to bring it to perfection. Here I cannot help remarking the uncommon generosity of those players whose talents might enable them to excel in the old way; yet who seem eager to engage in the contest of spouting sentiment, and to place themselves on a level with those that in other times would only have served to fill up a vacant corner of the stage. But why should not great actors love to make money with ease as well as the little?

But it is not the players alone who benefit by the new fashion; it has also brought halcyon days to our dramatic authors. It is said that Congreve, while he was finishing his character of Ben, was to be found, in a check shirt and blue trowsers, among all the parties of pleasure to the eastward of Tower-hill; and the poet who described Scrub and Archer must have been equally conversant with the dressing-room and the pantry. The writers of comedies are not now however put to such toils; even if their sphere of observation has never extended beyond Change-alley, they are quite competent to delineate every character west of Temple-bar, according to the modern fashion. The poet must indeed have sometimes visited the theatre; but this preparation entirely supersedes the necessity of looking into nature for characters. For instance, if he intends to have in his play a wanton young widow, a gruff old Englishman, or a young prig a little awkward in his first attempts at gentility; why 'tis but to have Mrs. Jordan furnished with a parasol and a white veil, to clap a white drab coat on Fawcett, and to have Bannister's neck and legs swelled out to the high Bond-street size. There will be no further occasion for marking the characters, as all the world knows that these actors can make the audience at once perceive what character it is they represent. Some incidents must indeed be interspersed to keep the attention awake; and at proper intervals a dashing sentiment introduced to bring down a thunder of applause from the galleries, and make the piece go off with spirit. One dramatist has indeed of late given an example of taking the superfluous pains to put some marked trait into his characters; and with this view, in bringing forward a British sailor, he has seized upon the well-known propensity of British tars to a little good liquor. Munden, I believe, could have dispensed with this stretch of talent, as it put him under the necessity of making the personage pass, throughout the whole piece, not only for a sailor, but a drunken sailor. The author, however, in my opinion, deserves much praise for the happy thought; as the benevolent sentiments uttered by the tar, are such as come quite naturally from a man when his heart overflows with a glass of good liquor.

In this state of things, it is evident that the middling authors, as well as the middling actors, must come in for their share of praise and money; and that the wit of a Congreve, a Farquhar, and a Sheridan, will no longer be able to crush the aspirings of certain other geniuses, whose names I shall not mention, as it might puzzle my curious readers twenty years hence to get any further account of them. The three authors I have mentioned have indeed been absolute prodigals of their talents; they seem to have been quite ignorant how far a little wit, when well managed, may be made to go. Sentiment has still more of this property: with a little new-garnishing, the same sentiment may be put into the mouth of every character of a play, and appear in each with equal propriety. Mr Sheridan, when he wrote the character of Joseph, could have no idea how many dramatic authors he should enable to put a handsome thing into their pocket without subjecting themselves to the toil of invention.

The benefits which must arise to the public at large from the new fashion are no less, I have been assured, than those reaped by the players and authors. The party-coloured gentlemen of the upper gallery must be greatly edified to learn that they can talk as fine sentiments and have as fine feelings as their masters; although indeed they may have often previously learnt this circumstance from their ordinary observation.—The unjust prejudices against rakes, gamesters, and other debauchees, who have fallen under the reproach of mankind merely from giving way to their feelings, must be greatly lessened, by hearing from their own lips, that they have the most virtuous and philanthropic sentiments at the bottom of their hearts. It may even be hoped that no small advances in universal benevolence will soon be made by those who have hitherto preyed upon the vitals of society, and that they will at least be induced to pursue their calling in a much more refined manner. If a late piece were translated into the Barbary dialect, there can be little doubt the corsairs of Algiers would soon be induced, by the beauty of sentiment, to lay aside the ferocious trade of making captives, and to think only, like the knights of romance, how to relieve distressed ladies, and rescue unfortunate Spanish governors from confinement.

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I should now point out the great effects which are

likely to be produced on the fair sex, by the new-fashioned comedy: but as our late novels, and certain other writings, may justly lay claim to a considerable share of these improvements, I must devote a whole paper to the subject, for there is nothing I so much love to dwell upon as the excellencies and refinements of my amiable countrywomen.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

On the Society for the Suppression of Vice.

THAT the object which this society proposes to itself is praiseworthy cannot be doubted. If vice be the bane of the human race, with respect both to the happiness of the individual, and the order of the community, that man deserves the thanks and gratitude of his country, who makes but a feasible attempt towards its diminution.

Every people who have made any advances beyond the state of barbarism, have thought it necessary to take cognizance of actions, not merely as injurious to individuals; but as contrary to the rules of decency, of propriety, and the great moral laws of human conduct. The institution of the Romans for this purpose has great celebrity.

"The magistracy of the Censors," says Montesquieu, "contributed greatly to support the government of Rome. They took the numbers of the people; and further, as the strength of the republic consisted in its discipline, in the austerity of its manners, and the constant observance of certain customs, they corrected the abuses which the law had not foreseen, or which the ordinary magistrate could not punish. There are bad examples, which are worse than crimes; and more states have perished by the violation of morals, than by the violation of the laws. At Rome every thing which could introduce dangerous novelties, alter the heart or mind of the citizen, and prevent, if I may use such an expression, its perpetuity, and all disorders domestic or public were reformed by the censors. They could degrade from the rank of senator whom they pleased; take from any member of the equestrian order the horse maintained for him at the public expence; condemn to an inferior tribe any citizen, and even place him among those who contributed to the expence of the state without having any share in its privileges. This was an institution of great wisdom. The censors could not deprive any one of his magistracy; because that would have disturbed the exercise of the public power. But they brought him down from his rank and degree, and deprived him, as it were, of his peculiar nobility."

In modern Europe the superintendance of morals has been involved in that of religion. That morals have gained by this conjunction is not to be doubted; as the natural and necessary connection between morality and religion should lead us to expect. But certain inconveniences too, arising from imperfect views of religion, have attended the association. The laws provided for the safeguard of religion have not always been the most judicious. And the religious observances inculcated have not always been those which had the best influence upon virtue, and good conduct. The controul which the laws respecting religion maintained over morals, has been greatly altered by the gradual change which has taken place in the views of religion. From the opinion formerly entertained, that religion ought to occupy the thought of almost every minute, and be applied to regulate the most ordinary actions of life, men have very generally come to think that the next world was never intended to exclude the present world, while we remain in it, from our minds; since the author of nature has rendered an incessant attention to the affairs of this world necessary even to the preservation of our animal existence. Out of one extreme men generally fall into another. If it was formerly attempted to give religious thoughts a prevalence in the mind, really inconsistent with the enjoyment and business of this life; it cannot be doubted that religion is now too generally excluded from the thoughts; and deprived of that influence which reason sanctions, and the interests of virtue require.

As the attention of mankind to religion has become languid, their vigilance in enacting the laws which enforced its observances has been abated. The greater part of them, accordingly, have been allowed to fall into disuse. As far as these regarded matters of superstition or ceremony, no loss has been sustained, if something has not been gained. But it is observable that all the laws intended to enforce the rules of morality, the duties of decency, temperance, fair-dealing, all those laws which might be denominated the code of censorship were intimately connected, and even blended with the laws for religious observances. The one accordingly fell into disuse at the same time with the other. When the laws for enforcing the ceremonies of religion came to be disregarded, so did those for enforcing the immutable laws of virtue. These important laws were left without any safeguard; the great state office of censor, therefore, remained unexecuted; and whatever assistance might be derived from it to the protection of morals, was wanting. That great disadvantages were thus incurred, can hardly be doubted; nor that many practices were allowed, and became general, which it was not consistent with the interests of the society to overlook.

In such a situation of things, it was greatly to be desired that the legislature should have taken a general view of a subject which infinitely concerns it, the state of morals; and should have adopted certain new regulations, fitted to the altered situation of affairs. We are decidedly of opinion, that governments should not legislate too much; and that very often more mischief is done by subjecting things to particular regulations than by leaving them alone. It is therefore justifiable, and perhaps laudable, that government should not proceed rashly to make regulations respecting morality. Experience ought first to point out their necessity, and to have suggested many instructions with regard to their nature, before the step of making these laws is taken. That experience, as yet, is not perhaps gained. But in the mean time no little inconvenience may be incurred. The old laws, from their inadequacy to present circumstances, remain unexecuted: No new ones are enacted: And

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the bad passions of men, exempted from controul, hurry them into actions very pernicious; and certain national habits may be formed, which it may require many ages to remove.

To counteract this lamentable effect must be the earnest desire of every well-disposed man; who must hold himself guilty if he omits any effort to that end. Associations of the labours of different individuals have in general been found much more successful for the accomplishment of any arduous undertaking than the unconnected efforts of individuals, however numerous. Associations are every day formed for various purposes; for the encouragement of literature, and science; for the improvement of agriculture, and other arts; for the maintenance of political principles. If associations for all these objects be laudable, surely an association for the discouragement of vice, cannot, in its own nature, be the object of disapprobation.

It will not be denied that the culture of morality among us, stands as much in need of pains and attention as the culture of the sciences, or of the elegant and useful arts. It is probably in a state as far from perfection, as these or any other great concerns. It will hardly too be denied, that means are possible to be adopted to encourage virtue, and to discourage vice; that the attempt is not altogether chimerical; that something may be accomplished; though, from obstructions too weighty to be removed, no remarkable progress can be made.

The clergy, it may be said, are a body of men appointed by the state to superintend the great concern of morals. We are by no means disposed to underrate the value of the clergy. Their labours are of the utmost importance; and without the salutary influence of these labours, we should exhibit a much more deformed appearance than we do. But it will not, we think, be denied, that the change which has taken place in the ideas of religion, the change which we described above, has altered considerably the nature of the superintendance over morals possessed by the clergy. The laws made for enforcing the obligations of religion, at one time threw a considerable share of coercive power into the hands of the clergy, and they possessed the censorial authority in considerable perfection. As these laws have fallen into neglect, this power of the clergy has been gradually destroyed; and at present they retain scarcely any influence but the mild power of instruction and persuasion. This we consider as the regulation most suitable to their office and destination; and such is strongly the opinion of the present age. Nothing accordingly would excite greater odium against the clergy, than for them to attempt to resume the coercive power, which has gradually, and usefully been withdrawn from their hands.

In the mean time it is undoubtedly the intention of the community, that a certain coercive power should be exercised with regard to morality; since the legislature leaves unrepealed a number of laws for that purpose. From the reason of the thing too, and from the practice of the best ordered states, it seems undeniable, that the exercise of a certain coercive power with regard to morality is highly salutary. But that business in this country lies at present in a situation rather unfortunate. By the prevalence of public opinion, which is irresistible, the power of enforcing the laws which exist is taken from that body of men, who were originally intended to take care of their execution; and no other set of men has yet, by authority, received the commission. The ordinary courts of law only take cognizance of such causes as are brought before them; it is not their business to seek out crimes. The officers of police are for the most part concerned with offences against justice, acts by which some person is aggrieved, or the public peace disturbed. Acts, by which the public morals may be injured, though no less concerning the state, the officers of police do not in general consider as falling within their jurisdiction. The laws accordingly which regard these acts are left without any appointed executors. Any man may prosecute a breach of them, who pleases. But he may likewise let it alone. Every day's experience confirms the vulgar maxim, that what is every body's business is nobody's; and the care of enforcing the statutes which regard the morals of the people, has not greatly prevailed.

This business, neglected by every body, it appears to us, that it is the intention of the Society for the Suppression of Vice, to undertake: and we cannot entertain a doubt that good may be done by such an undertaking. We are ready to allow however, that much delicacy and discretion is necessary in the management of this business. It is in its own nature extremely delicate; and the imperfection of the statutes which in this country relate to it, render it still more so. They were chiefly intended for enforcing the obligations of religion; and morality in them is only a secondary consideration. The direct objects which they have in view, being often founded on erroneous ideas of religion, are sometimes very absurd. It is therefore extremely difficult to find a law which enables you to lay a restraint on a practice inconsistent with the morals of the people, which does not at the same time lay a restraint very useless, with regard to some ceremony, or observance of a religious nature. This must increase the labour and difficulty of the undertaking; and lessen the amount of good, which it is possible to accomplish. But it is never laudable to omit the good which we can do, because we cannot effect as much as we wish.

We are inclined to believe that this society has done good. If they had accomplished nothing more but one of the objects which they have attained, we should have judged that they had conferred an unspeakable benefit on their country. We refer to the detection and exposure of the practice of selling obscene prints, in the boarding-schools for young ladies. A more dreadful and alarming evil, we venture to assert, never took birth among any people. It was a mean effectually to contaminate and corrupt the rising generation, and all who should proceed from them. No thought can be more hideous and awful, than to suppose that all the women who are to form the mothers of the next generation, the partners in the fortunes, and thoughts, and actions of the men who are soon to form the nation, should come forth with

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minds polluted by habitual imaginations of the most odious scenes of vice; incapable of conceiving any other pleasures than those of the most gross and brutal sort. The ruin of domestic order and happiness; and the most frightful scenes of crime, discord, and misery must ensue. Had such an infamous traffic become general, and the poison which it sheds been allowed to produce its full effects, a profligacy and villainy of a more detestable kind than has ever yet been found general in any country on the face of the earth, would have prevailed. So many virtues attend the pure, and well ordered union of the sexes, that whenever it can be preserved in any tolerable perfection, we are sure to find the best qualities of human nature in general exercise. And so many virtues are always eradicated, and so many vices engendered by a dissolute and disorderly union, that it cannot become general, without destroying every thing lovely and respectable in human society. What can be conceived more certain to produce this hated effect, than a contrivance to poison the minds of young girls, and to confirm in them, even in their tenderest years, habits of imagination which brutalize their nature; which estrange them from the love of their duty; and give them a decided and unconquerable propensity to vice! Are these the companions who are to humanize and refine the men? and who are to lead them to virtue by the sweetness of their attractions: and by the obligation which fidelity and affection imposes of an equal and suitable return?

The extent to which this traffic was carried, before detection, was very great. Many individuals actually earned their livelihood by selling prints and even books of the most detestable kind, about the metropolis, and chiefly in ladies boarding-schools. This very fact establishes the necessity of a watchful guardianship of the public morals; and proves that the actual institutions of the state are not adequate to their protection. This mischievous, this ruinous traffic had continued for a considerable time as yet unpunished, as yet unnoticed. How long it might have gone on, and what mischief it might have produced, before it would have attracted the attention of any of the constituted authorities of the state, it is not easy to say. But there is no reason to believe that it would soon have attracted it. And the progress which might have been made in sowing the seeds of universal profligacy and crime might have been very great.

We will not undertake to defend this Society in all the details of its conduct. We may be of opinion that it meddles sometimes with things which it had better leave alone. We may not be altogether satisfied that it possesses a very just and enlightened conception of the nature of the office which it has undertaken. But we have no hesitation to declare that many of the cavils which are made against it, are totally destitute of foundation.

How silly to talk of it as a puritanical institution; and by that disrespectful epithet propose to decry it! What do they mean who call it puritanical? Do they mean that it has any intention to enforce the old laws respecting minute and silly observances of a religious nature? We do not believe that the courts of law would give it any great encouragement in this task; and such obstructions might be placed in its way, as would soon tire it. At any rate if a law ought not to be executed, it ought to be repealed. There seems however to be a very sufficient safeguard against any danger of this sort. Public opinion and approbation would not go along with it; and without this a Society destitute of public authority can do nothing. It can by no means be said that all its objects are no better than silly and ceremonious observances. Some of them at least are of the very first importance.

Objections, more solid in appearance, have been made to it, on the score of the agents or spies, whom it employs. But even these are, in our opinion, by no means sufficient to discredit the undertaking. Spies are in all cases a disagreeable and odious instrument. They never ought to be employed but with the utmost caution and reserve. The object to be attained ought always to be very clearly defined, of certain importance, and not capable of being accomplished by any other means. But there are cases which are allowed by all men to justify the employment of spies. Now it is pretty evident that such a transaction as the sale of obscene prints and books can hardly be detected except by a contrivance of this sort. It will hardly be doubted too that if any case whatever is of an importance to justify such a contrivance, it is that to which we now allude. If there ought to exist a power in a state, to detect and punish transactions of such a description, and that there ought, cannot for a moment be doubted, that power must employ spies, for the attainment of its important object. Suppose that power then to be constituted in this country, what should we gain by having spies employed by it, rather than by the Society for the Suppression of Vice? The Society, having no public authority to support it, will probably employ this disagreeable instrument with more caution and reserve. Even in managing the business of police, however, spies are necessary to be employed; and accordingly are so every day. There is not a police officer who is not often employed in this necessary, though certainly not desirable business.

Every thing in this world may be employed to a pernicious purpose. Spies may undoubtedly be made use of, under the pretext of discovering practices destructive of the morals of the people, in such a manner as to disturb the business of common life. But undoubtedly the employment of them may be so guarded as to prevent this evil effect. Certain practices there are, breaches of morality, of which cognizance ought to be taken; And any danger resulting from the means necessary to take that cognizance are not to be compared with the dangers arising from permitting the practices to remain. The employment of spies in the business of police, moderated and guarded as it is in this country, is not found to break in upon the peace and profound security of any man's asylum and castle, his own house. Supposing the great and important office of a censorship to be established for the guardianship of morals, and that to answer some of the ends of that office, certain agents might at times be necessary, whose business in some

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respects corresponded to that of spies, could not this matter be so guarded and secured, in this case as well as in that of police, that no inconvenience could arise from it? The fact that it is so guarded in the case of police is a proof that it might be so; and then the only question is, whether such an office would be attended with any advantage. That it would be attended with advantage, must be held to be the opinion of the legislature of this country, so long as it permits to exist any coercive laws with regard to morality. But it must be confessed that laws are perfectly nugatory, if, as in the case of those respecting morality in this country, no provision is made for carrying them into effect. Some way therefore the legislation of this country with regard to this point is defective. Either we ought to have no laws respecting it; and morality ought to be left unfettered by laws: or, if certain laws relating to it are good, and if it ought to be in several respects under the controul of laws, then ought the legislature not only to enact these laws, but appoint the proper officers for carrying them into execution. We have the laws; but we want the officers.

By the transgressions of some laws, as those of justice, some individual is always aggrieved, and it is his interest to prosecute the offence. But no individual is in general injured by violations of the laws to which we now allude, and it is no one's peculiar interest to prosecute these violations. It is highly the interest of the whole community, but of no one man more than of any other. In such cases however, it is every man's right, and in some respect his duty to prosecute, if that be not inconsistent with some more immediate duty. In the present case therefore, it is the right, and in some respect the duty of the individuals who compose the society to which this discourse alludes, to use their endeavours to procure the execution of the laws for the protection of morals, and the suppression of vice. If they use spies in any improper manner for this purpose, they can easily be checked, and punished. The people have a more effectual security against any such attempt in the case of a private society, than if a public office were established by law for executing the statutes respecting morality. The society has no public authority; it will meet with no indulgence in the courts of law; and will no longer be protected by the public than it behaves to public satisfaction.

Certain ideas of presumptuousness are raised in the minds of some people by the undertakings of this society; and these always communicate an unfavourable impression. But, in reality, we are unable to perceive, how an association for promoting the interests of morality should be in any respect more liable to this imputation than an association for promoting the interests of science. Is it more a breach of modesty to pronounce oneself a man of virtue than a man of science? Though the man of virtue is beyond all comparison the nobler character of the two, we think that in general a man feels as much reluctance to declare himself the one as the other. However, we can conceive that a man may think himself qualified to do good in an association for promoting the interests of virtue and of science, without having a very high or inordinate opinion of himself in either respect. There have been individuals both in this and in other countries, who by their zeal and activity have been extremely useful to science, without supposing themselves very highly gifted with science. In fact there is the same appearance of presumptuousness in the meetings of any body of men for executing a great work. There is an appearance of presumptuousness in any body of men thinking themselves wise enough to make laws to bind a whole community, in the parliament of Great Britain for that reason. If there be any thing peculiar in the case of morality, how presumptuous must the body of the clergy be, who undertake to teach, and reprove the whole community. And yet it is not understood that the clergy think more highly of themselves for virtue, than of their fellow christians; on the contrary humility, and a modest opinion of themselves has always been thought peculiarly the duty and ornament of the clerical character.

It will be said perhaps that the members of the Society for the Suppression of Vice are self-elected to their office. In fact this is the case with the persons who fill every office. What clergyman, or lawgiver has been made so by force? Have they not all chosen to be what they are? What then is this but being self-elected? We are to look to the nature of the things, not to the accidental names.

There is thought to be something peculiar in assuming the task of coercion and punishment. Now in our apprehension this is less subject to the imputation of presumptuousness than the task of instruction and reproof. Wherever coercion and punishment can be applied, the laws have already pointed out and clearly defined the case. Nothing is left for the prosecutor to do but to observe the fact, and bring it before the tribunal. No peculiar knowledge of morality, nor any peculiar attainments in it are implied in this performance. It is different with the case of instruction and reproof. This cannot be well done but where great knowledge is acquired and great attainments made. Great knowledge and attainments are implied in this performance; and whoever undertakes it without them is indeed presumptuous.

The administration of the laws consists of three great branches, or offices:—1st, The administration of justice, between man and man; 2. The administration of the police, respecting the peace and convenience of the society; 3. The administration of the laws which respect the morals of the society. The boundaries of these different departments have never been very exactly defined. The last of them has, at least in modern times, been very little the subject of consideration. It is this circumstance chiefly which has induced us to call the attention of our readers to the Society for the Suppression of Vice; and to that branch of the administration of the laws, which they have in part undertaken.

Political History, from April 1, to April 16.

FOREIGN.

EAST-INDIES.—While Great-Britain is occupied at home with preparations for a contest of which the

termination, and even the nature are as yet beyond the reach of human penetration to foresee; her arms in the East-Indies continue to be attended with that brilliant success, which for so many years has distinguished them in that quarter. The Mahrattas. so long our allies against the princes of the Mysore, having learnt the art of war from ourselves, and been furnished with officers and artillery by the assistance of our ever active enemies, the French, seem to have undertaken to reduce the whole of Hindostan into their own power. By an union of their forces, the two powerful chiefs Scindia and Holkar, have succeeded in subduing their rivals, and in reducing to subjection the wide tract of country which stretches from Delhi to Bombay. The Peishwa, however, one of the Chiefs whom these confederates attacked, having put himself under the protection of the British government, the Marquis Wellesley seems to have considered this a proper opportunity for putting a decisive stop to those dangers which were to be apprehended to our settlements from the exorbitant power of the Mahrattas.

For this purpose, General Wellesley, crossing the mountains, has met the united forces of Scindia and the Rajah of Berar as they were advancing southward in their career of conquest towards the Carnatic; while General Lake has penetrated to the northern extremity of the Mahratta dominions, where a large division of Scindia's forces were encamped at Delhi, the capital of the Great Mogul. The success of both our Generals has been complete. General Wellesley's army advancing with astonishing intrepidity to attack an enemy far superior in numbers, and resolutely determined to dispute every inch of ground at the point of the bayonet, and supported by no less than ninety pieces of cannon, was every where victorious. The whole artillery of the enemy fell into our hands, and our gallant soldiers were preparing to pursue the routed bands of the enemy who had fled into the mountains of the interior. Our loss in this contest, from the obstinate resistance of the enemy, has been very considerable, and no less than 600 Europeans and about 900 natives are stated to have been killed or wounded. The loss of the enemy must have been still greater; but no official accounts have yet been received of the numbers brought into the battle or lost, either by ourselves or the Mahrattas. This battle took place on the 23d of last September.

The successes of General Lake have been no less brilliant, and have led to still more important consequences. After surmounting every obstacle that opposed his long march into the interior, and after carrying the strong fortress of Allyghur by assault, he was enabled on the 11th of last September, by a rapid movement to come up with the main body of the enemy's army which had taken post at Delhi. The vast superiority of the Mahrattas in numbers, and their immense train of artillery, were however unavailing against the discipline and coolness of our troops; of whom, the 76th regiment, advanced to within a hundred paces of the enemy without taking their muskets from their shoulders, when, after firing a volley, they charged bayonets with irresistible impetuosity. The whole of the enemy's artillery fell into our hands, and we have only to regret, in this brilliant victory; the loss of a number of meritorious officers and intrepid soldiers. After the battle, General Lake's first care was to restore the Mogul to his former dignities; and thus, by one of those singular vicissitudes which elude all human calculation, the British had the fortune to replace on the throne of his fathers the descendant of the mighty Tamerlane.

The ultimate object of this Indian war as yet remains a secret of state; but when we look on the map and observe the position of our territories and of our two armies, we are almost tempted to imagine that the Marquis Wellesley has conceived the vast scheme of rendering the Ganges and the Indus the boundaries of our Eastern Empire, and of reducing the whole Western peninsula of India into a British province. Both the policy and the justice of such a plan have been disputed. We are no friends to that species of aggrandisement which is acquired by seizing iniquitously upon the territories of nations who are unable to resist: yet, in the present instance, it is to be remembered that Scindia and Holkar have acquired the greater part of their territories merely by successful violence, and that the countries we are at present wresting from them belong in justice no more to them than to us; while the natives must live infinitely more happy under our protection, than exposed to the tyranny of a banditti who have been brought up from their infancy to plunder. The policy of the measure is still more doubtful; yet it may be urged than our Indian dominions might be secured by a less force and at a less expence, if the restless chiefs of the Mahrattas should once be subdued, or driven from that tract of country which disunites our several provinces in Hindostan.

CEYLON.—The tide of affairs in Ceylon, which seemed at one time ready to overwhelm our interests there, has of late greatly turned in our favour. The King of Candy, having with his main army attacked a body of our troops posted at Hangwelle, has been defeated with prodigious slaughter, and forced again to take refuge in his woods and mountains. In his rage at hearing his prospects of victory blasted, he has massacred some of his principal officers of state, and been guilty of such acts of cruelty as must destroy the attachment and enfeeble the future efforts of his subjects. His principal magazines and stores, collected at Rowanelle, have been taken; as well as his whole train of artillery and the Lascars who acted as engineers.

DUKE D'ENGHIEN.—On the evening of the 14th of March, several parties of French troops passed the Rhine at Kehl, and began to arrest certain French emigrants who were resident in the different towns of the Electorate of Baden. The young Duke d'Enghien was seized by them in the village of Ettenheim, and hurried off to the castle of Vincennes, where he was immediately put on his trial before a Military Commission. The charges against him were, that he had borne arms against France, that he had offered his services to England, and been employed by her, both in procuring intelligence, and in endeavouring to excite commotions in the interior of France; that he was at the head of a body of emigrants paid by England, and forming in the districts of Fribarg and

Baden; that he had fomented intrigues for a rising in the departments around Strasburg; that he was one of those concerned in the conspiracy planned by the English for the assassination of the First Consul, and intending, in case of the success of that plot, to return to France. On all these charges he was found guilty by his judges, on the 21st, and at two o'clock in the morning of the 22d, he was shot in the Bois de Vincennes.

The arrest of this young Prince by a French force in a neutral territory, his summary trial and immediate execution, have excited equal surprise and indignation wherever the accounts of the transaction have reached. He was son to the Duke of Bourbon, and grandson to the Prince of Condé. He commanded the vanguard of the army led by the latter, in 1795; and after the hopes of the Prince and the emigrants had fallen, he retired to Ettenheim, imagining himself safe under the protection of a neutral territory. The connection of the Elector of Baden with the Emperor of Russia, has led some to augur important consequences from the violation of the neutrality of the latter; the only immediate effect of the transaction, however, has been to make the terrified petty Princes of Germany hasten to send away from their territories the unfortunate French emigrants, who must wander to seek an asylum at a greater distance from their native land.

Correspondence of Mr. Drake.—On the 24th of March, the Grand Judge of France made a report, developing a secret correspondence carried on between Mr. Drake, our minister at the Court of Bavaria, and an agent in France. According to this report Mr. Drake had drawn up certain instructions for this agent, and commissioned him, besides procuring intelligence, to procure emissaries who would undertake to blow up the powder-mills, and foment insurrections against the present government; and for accomplishing these purposes, money was to be furnished from time to time by Mr. Drake. The agent, we are told, pocketed our minister's money, amused him with a shew of intelligence, but at the same time communicated the whole affair to the police at Paris, and put the correspondence of Mr. Drake into their hands. This correspondence is now published in the Moniteur, and copies of it sent with a circular letter to all the foreign ministers at Paris; while the original letters are to be sent to the Elector of Bavaria, at whose court Mr. Drake resides. The authenticity of these letters is a point which it will require something more than the report of the Grand Judge to establish. They bear internal marks of affectation and puerility which we certainly should not have expected in a diplomatic agent; nor is it consistent with the judgement requisite for the conduct of the most ordinary affairs, to imagine it would conduce to the overthrow of a government to blow up a few powder-mills. What the French government dwell most upon in their comments on the correspondence, is the villainy of a diplomatic character being employed in procuring the assassination of the head of a government. In vain however, do we look for this alleged crime even in these letters, unless to attempt the overthrow of a government, be to meditate the assassination of its head. The answers of the different diplomatic agents at Paris to the circular letter, which was transmitted to them with a copy of the correspondence, are very curious documents. Those of the powers immediately under the rod of France, express vehement indignation at the conduct of Mr. Drake; while those who are less under the yoke, confine themselves to some general reflections on the criminality of abusing the diplomatic character. The Russian Charge d'Affaires, however, merely says that he has transmitted the correspondence to his court, and that his Imperial Majesty will no doubt learn with satisfaction, that his minister, in common with the others at Paris, participates in the First Consul's good opinion.

DOMESTIC.

Irish Affairs.—The depreciation of the coin in Ireland, and the enormous rate of the exchange against that country, have of late much excited the public attention. Mr. Corry intends to bring forward a motion on the subject. The most expert financiers seem however at a loss for a remedy sufficient to counteract the evil. The distress felt in Ireland from the state of the coin is very great.——His Majesty has been empowered by parliament to accept the offers of the Irish militia; and a bill is in its progress to raise an equal number in that quarter of the kingdom to supply the place of those who shall be removed.—Mr. Corry has stated to the gentlemen, who expressed their intention of becoming bidders for the Irish loan, that the loan for Great Britain this year would not exceed 10,000,000, and that for Ireland 6,000,000, except in the event of invasion or some other extraordinary occurrence. There is to be no issue of Treasury Bills, nor any proposition for a lottery in Ireland, during the payment of the instalments.

Volunteers.—The Volunteer Bill, in passing through the house of lords, has met with uncommon opposition. Almost every clause has been contested in the committee, and the house divided upon it. It seems to have been the determinate resolution of the Grenville party to protract the measure as long as possible, since they were unable to throw it out. The ministry, perceiving this resolution, have as determinately resisted every amendment; and the Bill now approaches its last stage in the same form in which it was sent up from the Commons.—Government has expressed a wish that the several volunteer corps should go on permanent duty for a certain time. Most of the corps will, from the necessary avocations of the members, be unable to comply with this request, but some of them have endeavoured to accede as nearly as possible to it, by binding themselves, under severe fines, to attend drill for some hours each day, during a certain period.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

A fourth volume of Turner's History of the Anglo-Saxons, which will complete that work, is in forwardness.

Mr. Card, Author of the Revolutions in Russia, will shortly publish *An historical Outline of the Rise and Establishment of the Papal Power*, which is intended to be addressed to the Roman Catholics of Ireland.

A collection of the letters, &c. of Richardson, the author of Sir Charles Grandison, in the hands of a lady whose name is Duncombe, is expected to be given to the public, besides those lately announced.

An Account of the life of Dr. James Beattie, with a short View of the State of Literature in Scotland during the last century will appear early in May, from the pen of Mr. Alexander Bower.

Capt. Percival's Account of the Cape of Good Hope, will be ready for publication on the first of May.

In the Allgemeine Literatura Zeitung for the 21st Dec. last, M. Ch. Weyland, of Weimar, gives notice that he is translating Mr. Clarke's Progress of Maritime Discovery into German; he makes this public, he says, "to prevent, if possible, all injurious competition in regard to so highly important a work."

Mr. Thomas Campbell, the author of the Pleasures of Hope, is writing an allegorical poem illustrative of a series of Designs by the Princess Elizabeth. The subject is *Cupid turned Volunteer*.

Delauve a Frenchman has just published at Paris an 8vo volume, intitled, "The Monument of Mr. Pitt, or the *Charlatan* of the 18th century." The following invocation is prefixed to the work: "O Nature, lend me thy sublime pencil, to rouse if it be possible the whole human race against Pitt, its most cruel enemy!! Canst thou permit that he should sacrifice the Universe which he has set on fire, to his ambition and to his vengeance?" Many will be of opinion that, whatever might be the intention of the author, the work is in fact a testimony to the good conduct and great abilities of the man against whom the attack is directed.

GEOGRAPHY.—The Councillor *Oesfield* at Berlin, has sold his celebrated collection of maps, copper and wooden plates, to the King of Prussia, who has placed them in the great Royal Library. This collection is extremely valuable, and contains the greatest number of copper and wooden plates, for the illustration of geography and history, hitherto exhibited in the Prussian States.

NATURAL HISTORY.—The celebrated Danish traveller and natural historian, *Sparrmann* is employed in the publication of the 5th Number of the *Museum Carlsonianum*; it is to contain 25 coloured drawings of new species of birds. His last travels are translating into German by Dr. Ruhs of Greifswald.

BAMBERG MUSEUM.—With the commencement of the present year, a public Museum was opened at Bamberg. Its object is to promote among the inhabitants of that city, a general knowledge of whatever is transacting in the world, by putting within their reach a very large collection of all the most approved authors, periodical writings, literary journals, and political newspapers. Particular attention is to be paid to every branch of literature, that by this means every class of the inhabitants may have a rational and agreeable entertainment provided for their leisure hours. The sovereign as well as many private persons has determined to contribute largely out of their private collections to this important public institution.

BAVARIAN SEMINARIES.—The Electoral Lyceums of Munich and Amberg, have in the course of the last year, received an extraordinary encrease of students, partly owing to several of the monks of the suppressed monasteries having found it requisite to finish their education there, and partly owing to the electoral edict, by which many Bavarian youths, who had repaired to foreign seminaries, have been obliged to return to their native country. In the five classes of the public academy at Munich there are 302 scholars, at Amberg 181, at Straubing 103, at Landshut 112, at Neuburg 83; and in all the five Latin schools, the two lyceums included, there were at the commencement of last year 1170 scholars.

POEMS OF THE ANCIENT BARDS.—It is stated in a German print, under the head *Prussia*, that a reward of 100 ducats is promised for the discovery of the manuscripts made by Charlemagne, of the poems of the ancient bards, supposed to be buried in the library of some convent.

THEATRICAL COSTUME.—The Emperor of Russia has presented a very valuable diamond ring to Hn. *Wilhelm Wittich*, of Darmstadt, the publisher of the costume of the royal theatre at Berlin, in return for a copy of that work, which he sent to his Imperial Majesty.

DAVID PILCHOWSKY.—Last November died at Wilna, *David Pilchowsky*, late Professor of the University of Wilna, a knight of the order of St. Anne, and a commander of the order of Malta. He devoted his whole life to the sciences and literature, and enriched the Polish language by translations of Sallust and Seneca, besides many original works. Above all, however, his memory will be for ever dear to his countrymen, on account of a noble and truly benevolent establishment which he founded for the education of poor children.

DEATH OF KANT.—This philosopher, whose metaphysical doctrines have made so much noise on the continent, and who died very lately, was carried to the grave by his disciples. On his coffin, which was very richly mounted, was placed a sepulchral urn, with this inscription: Cineres mortales immortali Kanti. M. Schroter pronounced on him a funeral oration, and the musicians of the theatre of Koenisberg sung a hymn to his memory.

The Order of Jesuits is sensibly increasing in Russia. They have lately obtained permission to form establishments at Riga, Astracan, Jaffa, and Odessa.

SCIENTIFIC.

Doctor Stenhouse, of Edinburgh, has adopted a method for the cure of the gout, no less important for its simplicity than the almost instantaneous success with which it is attended. The method is no more than holding the affected part over hot or boiling water. Gout he considers as proceeding from obstruction. By the action of steam the fibres are relaxed, or, what is the same thing, the pressure of the common atmosphere is diminished, and the cure of course follows. To confirm this theory by facts, the doctor relates his practice upon himself in two instances. He was first attacked in the hand; when the fit had acquired its last stage both in pain and swelling, he held his hand over a common tureen full of boiling water. In a few minutes the pain abated, and in 25 minutes entirely subsided, and had it not been for the swelling he could have used his hand as well as if nothing had happened. The second attack was in his foot, which he allowed to proceed for 24 hours. He then suspended it over a pail nearly full of boiling water and covered it with flannel. In the course of an hour he was free from pain and walked about the room as usual. The doctor observes, that in case his stomach or bowels shall be attacked he will immerse his whole body in a hogshead of steam. He has been in good health and free from gout ever since he tried these experiments, though very near seventy. This vapour bath ought to be repeated several times, even after the pain is removed, in order to effect a radical cure.

THE FINE ARTS.—We learn from Rome, that the Pope shews every inclination, as far as his slender revenue will permit, to encourage the Arts. *Canova's* Perseus has been placed in the Museum of the Vatican. Engravings have besides been made of a number of ancient statues and bas-reliefs, which have hitherto been neglected. The subterraneous researches at Ostia go on with considerable success, besides a number of pillars, statues, and pieces of

Mosaic work, 800 coins have been found, chiefly bronze, and for the most part of the times of Trajan and Adrian; among them are two very rare ones of Pertinax. Architecture it is also expected will receive a rich accession from the antiquities of the same age in the discovery of some of those very rare porphyry stones, Nero antico. New researches have also begun to be made at the foot of the Capitol, and the triumphal arch of Septimius Severus. At the depth of twelve feet, the bases of the pillars have been laid open, and are discovered to be adorned all around with the most beautiful bas-reliefs. Similar researches have been begun around the temple of Faustina, and other parts of the Campo Vacino. Among the foreign artists at present resident in Rome, the Danish Statuary *Thorwaldson* has peculiarly distinguished himself and is likely to prove a dangerous rival to Canova. He has been there for the last six years, and has in that time sent several small pieces to England, but his last work chiefly established his reputation as a great artist. This piece is a *Jason*, as large as the life, at the moment he has got possession of the golden fleece; and it is looked upon as one of the most beautiful pieces of sculpture in modern times. He has now begun upon the same figure again in a beautiful block of marble for Mr. Hope of Amsterdam, who has agreed to give 800 ducats for it. He is besides employed on a bas-relief which represents the taking away of Briseis from the tent of Achilles. The rooms in the galleries at Florence, which have been for some time past shut, have again been opened, and the statues and paintings which had been carried away from them have, as far as possible, been restored.

M. Utschneyder, the proprietor of a manufacture of stone ware, at Sarguemines, in the department of the Moselle, has discovered a coloured composition of potters' clay, which he calls red porcelain. His experiments, submitted to the Society of Encouragement, have been received with great interest. Guiton Morveau, Bosc and Conté, who were commissioned to examine them, have made a very favourable report. This porcelain, say they, moulds exactly; it preserves the most delicate ornaments with admirable perfection; it does not warp by the fire. When this clay is well baked, it is of a deep red of an agreeable appearance. Its fracture is semi-vitreous. It gives sparks with steel; it is as hard as silex; it stands the fire very well; it is similar, if not superior to the china vases, known by the name of Boukakos. In a word we may have, formed of this material, cheap and salubrious vessels, such as we have long wanted, and have not yet obtained.

AGRICULTURAL.—Mr. John Christian Curwen of Cumberland, has made extensive experiments on the use of steamed potatoes as a substitute for hay to cattle, which have been found to answer his most sanguine hopes. This gentleman has brought the method of steaming the potatoes to considerable perfection, and for two seasons has fed sixty horses upon them, with the addition of a very small quantity of straw. The horses during the whole time were in the most excellent condition. He has also given steamed potatoes to milch cows and other cattle. This method of feeding is of very great importance both for its cheapness in comparison with hay, and as a substitute in case of a failure in the hay crop. The process for steaming the potatoes, and the advantages attending this method of feeding may be found described by Mr. Curwen himself in the 21st vol. of the Transactions of the Society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce.

Mr. Bartley of Bath has been in the practice of feeding his ewes with potatoes raw and unwashed. This has been found to answer extremely well. He continued to feed his sheep in the proportion of 2½lbs. to each ewe every morning. They improved rapidly and would readily have taken a greater quantity, but it was feared that if more was given it might endanger their lambing. As the lambs dropped, they were supplied more liberally to increase the milk. This method of feeding sheep Mr. Bartley thinks will become general when it is known, and it would probably result from well conducted inquiries that the potatoe might with advantage be substituted for the turnip.

Mr. Gardiner of Boldre near Lymington, sowed with potatoes, 40 acres of ground which had been exhausted by the mismanagement of his tenant. The produce was so great that after deducting all expences he had a clear profit of £20 per acre. Mr. Gardiner attributes this extraordinary success almost entirely *to the deep winter ploughing a deep and good soil formerly marled.*

UNIVERSITY OF WILNA.—*Johann Peter*, and *Joseph, Frank*, who were invited from Germany to become professors of different branches of the medical department in the University of Wilna, by the Emperor of Russia, have received there the following establishments: Johann Peter Frank, besides a free house, has received a yearly salary of 6000 silver rubles; and if he should become unable to fulfil the duties of his office, he is still to receive half the same salary with leave to retire wherever he chuses. Each of his daughters, in the event of his death, is to receive a yearly pension of 500 silver rubles, which they are to enjoy as long as they remain unmarried. Joseph Frank, besides a free house, is to have a yearly salary of 2000 rubles. He has also had an establishment of 3000 silver rubles secured to his father. Both are over and above to have all the expences of their journey and of transporting their effects, defrayed by the Emperor. They are besides to enjoy all the privileges and benefits which were granted to the other professors by the Imperial edict, which last year confirmed the establishment of the university of Wilna; such as, an adequate provision for their widows; the privilege of importing into Russia free of duty goods liable to impost to the value of 6000 rubles; the permission, on leaving that country, to remove all their property free from any deduction. For the establishment of a clinical institution, no less a sum than 50,000 rubles has been appropriated.

Fourteen members of the Medical Society of Copenhagen, lately had a dinner, of which all the dishes were horse-flesh dressed with different sauces. The French Journal from which we have quoted this notice says, that the motive for this experiment is not known.

GALL'S THEORY OF SCULLS.—Dr. Martens of Leipzic, for his dedication of an account of the Gallean doctrine of Sculls, to the reigning Duke of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, has received from that prince, along with a very flattering letter, a large gold medal, having on one side a likeness of his Serene Highness, and on the other this inscription, "the Arts and Sciences."

POLITICAL.

EMANCIPATION OF RUSSIAN PEASANTS.—A gentleman of the government of Woronese lately purchased from Prince Truboskoi, six thousand peasants; and at the same time put it in their power to purchase their freedom by reimbursing to him the sum given to the Prince. The first use which these peasants made of their liberty, was to write to his Imperial Majesty, thanking him for the edict which authorises these transactions; and asking permission from him to build, at their own expence, a church, under the name of the gentleman to whom they owed their new situation. The same letter contains an offer to make a canal themselves fifteen versts in length, which would facilitate an intercourse of the greatest importance to commercial industry.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

The Works of Plato: viz. His Fifty-five Dialogues and Twelve Epistles, Translated from the Greek; Nine of the Dialogues by the late Floyer Sydenham, and the remainder by Thomas Taylor. With occasional Annotations on the Nine Dialogues translated by Sydenham, and Copious Notes by the latter Translator; in which is given the Substance of nearly all the existing Greek MSS. *Commentaries on the Philosophy of Plato, and a considerable portion of such as are already published.* 5 *vols.* 4*to. London* 1804. *Evans and Jeffery.* 10*l.* 10*s.* 0*d.*

THE works of Plato form so eminent a part of the precious remains of ancient literature; they afford so remarkable a specimen of genius and eloquence; so many of the most eminent men who have ever existed have treated them as the favourite object of their study and pursuit; they are so much adapted to sharpen the ingenuity of youth, and engender the love of science and of virtue, that we know few things we should more ardently wish, than to see them become a general and favourite object of perusal in our native country. We received therefore with peculiar satisfaction the first intelligence of a translation of these works into English; and congratulated that large portion of our countrymen, and that still larger portion of our countrywomen, to whom these valuable writings, in the original language, are not accessible, on the vast addition which they were about to receive to the sources of their improvement and pleasure.

We have often reflected with serious regret upon the little care which has been taken in this country, to unfold the treasures of ancient learning to the great body of readers. And indeed every Greek scholar must have frequently felt severely how little has been done toward even his accommodation. Of many of the Greek authors it is impossible to procure a convenient and well printed copy. The best editions which we yet possess of some of the most valuable of the Greek classics, were executed in the infancy of the art of printing; and in respect of type and paper, and even in accuracy, more especially of pointing, are wonderfully inferior to what might now be provided. This greatly augments the difficulty of perusing these valuable authors; and prevents many persons from obtaining that acquaintance with them which otherwise they would. We have several times wondered that this should have been in so particular a manner the case with Plato, an author whom one would have naturally expected to be so general a favourite; many of the most popular topics being discussed in his works, and the charms of his stile, and of the form of his dialogue, being so peculiarly strong. Yet only two complete editions, that of Serranus, and that of Ficinus, both of them very ancient, have yet been given of his works. Of the imperfections of these editions in various other respects, we shall not at present speak; but their typography, if we may judge from our own experience, must have been felt as a serious inconvenience by every Greek scholar. Select dialogues have to be sure been published more than once in a very good stile; among which are particularly to be distinguished the five edited by Mr. Foster; and the two by Dr. Routh, president of Magdalen college, Oxford.

When so little was done toward the assistance of the Greek scholar in obtaining an acquaintance with the writings of Plato, it was not to be wondered, that no attempts, or but very imperfect ones had been made to disclose them to English readers. It was not indeed an easy task. The modern languages have been found peculiarly ill adapted to that species of composition which appears so infinitely graceful in the antient languages—the Dialogue; which is so much adapted to the discussions of philosophy, that some of the most eminent philosophers have chosen to compose almost all their works in that form. On the other hand, though some of the greatest masters of composition in modern times, have, in imitation of the ancients, chosen to exhibit a specimen of their abilities in dialogue writing, not one of them has succeeded in any considerable degree. The business of translation, therefore, was a very bold undertaking. But this was not all which was necessary to be done. The full elucidation of the writings, particularly the philosophical writings of any of the antients, requires a good deal in the way of explanation and illustration; and many things conspired in the case of Plato to render this particularly difficult. In addition to the skill of the translator and expounder, that of the philologist and commentator, of the collator of manuscripts, and the reformer of corrupted readings was wanted in a very great degree. So little has yet been done towards giving a perfect edition of Plato, that though his writings have come down to us in a less mutilated and corrupted state than those of many of the antient authors, still there are many passages of his writings which are manifestly incorrect, and which must be reformed before a proper translation can be given.

On the annunciation of a translation into English, with a full elucidation of the whole of Plato's works, we confess that our hopes were raised very high; and we expected that a most valuable addition was about to be made to the stock of English literature. We expected to find the language of Plato thrown at least into pure English, into language certainly as perspicuous to an English reader, as the original was to an antient Greek, and possessing at least a share of the charms which so eminently distinguish the stile of

Plato. We expected to find the spirit and nature of the writings of Plato clearly distinguished and unfolded; and that striking difference, which there is between the nature of his speculations and those of the persons who afterwards called themselves his followers, distinctly pointed out. And we expected to find developed, the artifice, address, and ingenuity, which appear so eminent in these dialogues; and the important lessons of eloquence which they yield fully unfolded. We are sorry to be obliged to add that in every one of these respects we have found our expectations most wofully disappointed.

Our author presents himself first to our notice in the capacity of an expounder of the principles and doctrines of Plato. This exposition is given in a pretty long introductory discourse prefixed to the translation; and it will afford us occasion for all the remarks to which we can allow room in the present Number: so much attention is due to the great character, whose opinions are the subject of consideration, rather than to the person who has here undertaken to explain them. Had it been our task to characterize the writings of the latter only, we should hardly have obtained the pardon of our readers if we had consumed much of their time and attention upon them.

One of the first objects of human curiosity is to account for the origin and government of the world. The rudest nations have formed to themselves a system of opinions upon this subject, and hardly a peasant's boy will be met with, who may not by proper questions be made to discover that he is, partly from information, and partly from thinking, in possession of a set of opinions of the same sort. The inquiry so necessarily urges itself upon the mind, that hardly any exercise of intellect can be supposed to exist, without leading to it.

What attracts the attention of every body could not fail to engage the consideration of the philosophers. The conjectures of the vulgar were in general too rude to suit their taste. They framed others to themselves: and a theory of the universe, or an attempt to account for its origin and government formed the first and longest chapter in their philosophical systems. This enquiry in a great measure engrossed the attention of the philosophers who flourished immediately before Socrates, and it led them into physical and metaphysical disquisitions of a very unprofitable nature. Socrates observing how unsatisfactory these enquiries were, and how little they contributed to any advantage in life, undertook the task of diverting from them the attention of his countrymen, and turning it to what he thought much more useful, the rules and motives of good conduct. Hence he was said to have brought philosophy down from heaven to earth. To accomplish this object it was necessary for him to ridicule and discredit the doctrines and enquiries of the ordinary philosophers who were called sophists, to whom the youth in every part of Greece eagerly flocked for instruction, and by whom, in the opinion of Socrates, they were deeply corrupted. He sought every opportunity of entering into conversation with these pretended philosophers, and by questioning them concerning their curious doctrines, pretending himself to be perfectly ignorant, and that he asked only for the sake of information, he led them on with infinite art completely to expose themselves, and to betray in the most glaring manner their ignorance, their presumption, and the absurdity of their principles. Two of the most eminent of the disciples of Socrates have undertaken to give us some of the more remarkable of these conversations of their master. These are Xenophon and Plato. The whole of the philosophical writings of these celebrated authors are given as conversations of Socrates; and by far the greater part of the dialogues of Plato are those in which the opinions of the sophists are refuted. To understand the philosophy of Plato therefore, a clear idea of that of Socrates is the most essential requisite. We find a passage in the first book of the Academical Questions of Cicero so full and accurate, in explanation of the philosophy of Socrates that we are happy to transcribe it:

"Socrates mihi videtur, (id quod constat inter omnes,) primus a rebus occultis & ab ipsa natura involutis, in quibus omnes ante eum philosophi occupati fuerint, avocavisse philosophiam & ad vitam communem adduxisse; ut de virtutibus & vitiis omninoque de bonis rebus & malis quæreret, cœlestia autem vel procul a nostra cognitione censeret, vel (si maxime cognita essent) nihil tamen ad bene vivendum conferre. Hic, in omnibus fere sermonibus qui ab iis qui illum audierunt perscripti varie copiose sunt, ita disputat ut nihil affirmet ipse, refellat alios; nihil se scire dicat, nisi id ipsum; eoque præstare cæteris, quod illi quæ nesciant scire se putent, ipse se nihil scire id unum sciat; ob eamque rem se arbitrari ab Apolline omnium sapientissimum esse dictum, quod hæc esset una omnis sapientia non arbitrari sese scire quod nesciat. Quæ cum diceret constanter & in sententia permaneret, omnis ejus oratio tum in virtute laudanda & in omnibus hominibus ad virtutis studium cohortandis consumebatur, ut e Socraticorum libris, maximeque Platonis, intelligi potest."

Both Xenophon and Plato professed exactly to follow their master. Xenophon is thought most exactly to have copied the simplicity of the Socratic manner; it has been supposed that Plato has even sometimes put into the mouth of his master opinions on subjects beyond that range of disquisition which he prescribed to himself. But it seems undeniable, that professing to deliver the actual discourses of Socrates he can have indulged in that liberty but very sparingly. And we are well assured that many of the opinions ascribed to Plato are none of his.

Plato is always understood to deliver his own opinions in the person of Socrates. But in almost all the dialogues of Plato, Socrates, as Cicero remarks, in the quotation above, advances no opinion himself, but refutes the opinions of some other person. It is true he often proposes hypotheses on the subjects under consideration, and contrasts them with those of the person whose opinions he is examining, in order to puzzle him, and contribute to his refutation. But it scarcely ever appears to be any part of the intention of Plato, that these hypotheses should be considered as the opinions of Socrates, or as his own. It would have been perfectly inconsistent with the character of

Socrates to represent him as advancing these or any other hypotheses as his opinions. It always appeared to us in the perusal of these dialogues, that the hypotheses which have been denominated the Platonic visions, and stated as the foundation of what has been called the Platonic philosophy, were introduced for the sake of refutation merely, and that Plato in general adhered to the rule of his master; played with the theories of others, and advanced nothing seriously himself but what concerned virtue. If any authority be sufficient to confirm an opinion respecting the writings of Plato, surely it is that of Cicero, who expressly affirms, that in this respect the practice of that philosopher was conformable to that of his great predecessor, "Cujus (Platonis) in libris," says he, "nihil affirmatur, & in utramque partem multa disseruntur; de omnibus quæritur, nihil certe dicitur."

It is true the hypotheses thrown out by Plato, respecting the system of the universe, are infinitely more ingenious than those which he is refuting; and when unfolded in a language highly metaphorical, and supported by a curious species of metaphysical reasoning. have a very imposing air. They are evidently the conceptions of a great and sublime genius, of a most comprehensive, as well as a most penetrating mind; but at the same time they are evidently rapid and hasty conjectures drawn from a momentary glance at the affairs of the universe, and intended only for a momentary or particular purpose, to assist in the refutation of the sophist, the exposure of whose opinions is the subject of the dialogue. Even in the most serious dialogues, as the Phædo, for instance, in which several of the hypotheses to which we allude, are introduced, they seem to be thrown out in a manner between jest and earnest, for the illustration of the argument, and as conjectures equally probable with any theories which could be held on the opposite side, but by no means as fixed and deliberate opinions of Plato. Perhaps they were regarded by Plato, in a light somewhat resembling that in which Sir Isaac Newton considered his *aerial fluid*. We doubt if they were even regarded so seriously by Plato; but the whole air of his discourse concerning them proves to us most decidedly that he did not regard them in a more serious light.

From the writings of Cicero it appears to us to be very evident that this was the opinion entertained down to his time, and entertained by himself, of the philosophy of Plato. After a course of time, however, a different spirit of philosophising was introduced. It is well known what an extravagant propensity to subtle and visionary speculations arose among the Greeks in the latter ages of the Roman empire. Schools and sects were formed without number, who vied with one another in the peculiarity of their opinions. Theories were proposed to account for every thing. The expressions which had been employed by any celebrated philosopher of antiquity were taken up, refined upon, and tortured to support some whimsical opinion of the sect who adopted them. A sect arose who formed a theory of the universe by certain metaphysical reasonings, which bore some resemblance to the hypothetical ideas here and there thrown out, for the sake of illustration, in the dialogues of Plato. The authority of Plato's name was an advantage of importance. The passages of Plato were greedily extracted, commented upon, metamorphosed, and laid as the foundation of the visionary theory which it was proposed to build. Such was the disposition of the times; and nothing, however sacred and inviolable, escaped the misfortune of having a theory grafted upon it. In what a lamentable manner were theories, almost without number, grafted upon the inspired writings, and the simple words of Jesus Christ and his apostles represented as containing subtle and complex theories on the most abstruse and useless points! And how difficult has it been to dissolve the unholy unions which were then effected between things sacred and things profane!

It is peculiarly unfortunate for the memory of Plato, that his writings have come down to us involved in all the mysticism of those pretended expounders, who only made his name the vehicle for circulating more rapidly their own chimerical notions. The mysterious and visionary speculations of the latter Platonists, have been very generally considered as the genuine philosophy of Plato. It is remarkable that, notwithstanding the veneration in which the name of Plato, has been always held less pains have been taken in modern times to explain his writings, and to ascertain his opinions, than have been taken with any of the great writers of antiquity. The general ridicule, in which the opinions of the latter Platonists have been held, we doubt not has been in a great measure the cause of this event, which we consider as truly an unfortunate one. Opinions such as those of the latter Platonists were justly held unworthy of the serious examination of a sensible man; and therefore an elucidation of the philosophy of Plato was a task which no one thought of undertaking.

We cannot help being a good deal surprized that it should in modern times have all along been taken for granted, that the theories of the later Platonists were the genuine exposition of the writings of Plato. As soon should we grant that the writings of the Fathers in the third and fourth centuries, cotemporary with the latter Platonists, were the genuine exposition of the sacred scriptures. It is not the speaking and writing in the same language, which qualifies a man completely for the task of exposition. We know enough of the *language* of Plato, in modern times, for understanding the nature of his speculations; and we are in far more favourable circumstances in many other respects for that purpose than the latter Platonists.

Filled as we were with an admiration, even bordering on enthusiasm, of the writings of Plato, with a very perfect contempt of the writings of his pretended commentators and followers, and with deep regret that the one set of writings and the other should be associated together so generally in the minds of our countrymen, it was with some sorrow that we discovered the *nature* of the translator and commentator, who has now assumed the task of unfolding the writings of Plato to all the classes of readers in this

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country. He has accomplished an enterprize, which in the present state of knowledge and philosophy, we should have almost concluded to be utterly impossible; he has acquired the full belief of all the doctrines of the school of the latter Platonists; he is filled with an admiration of these doctrines, which literally surpasses expression, as he expressly declares his belief that they were the effects of divine inspiration, immediately communicated to the authors; he accounts it the highest glory of Plato to have been the founder of these doctrines; of course he never supposes it can be doubted that they are all Plato's opinions; and his exposition of the Platonic philosophy consists of a detail of the theory which was delivered and supported by the latter Platonists, respecting the origin and government of the universe, and respecting the divine, intellectual, and material natures, of which the universe consists.

The language made choice of by Mr. Taylor, is not less extraordinary than the opinions which he has adopted. It is entirely in the mysterious and rapturous strain of the authors from whom the opinions are drawn. It is highly metaphorical and figurative. The sentences are remarkably long and involved; and formed as nearly as possible upon the structure of sentences in the ancient languages. As many words too, as possible, are borrowed from these languages, of which some are pretty bold innovations on the English language; as, *Dianoetic, Doxastic, Imparticipable, Orectic, Paradigm, Copassivity, Psychical, Telestic, The Unical.* We have some specimens, in the English language, of a stile formed a good deal upon the structure of sentences in the ancient languages; as in the writings of Lord Shaftesbury, and of Mr. Harris. But this is done with so much address and delicacy, and so many classical beauties are displayed in the writings of these elegant scholars, that their stile will always possess a peculiar charm to those who are conversant with the authors of Greece and Rome. In the stile of Mr. Taylor there are none of these recommendations; by consequence it appears peculiarly unnatural and deformed. It has exactly the air of a clumsy and ill executed literal translation of an ancient author; even in those parts, we mean, where Mr. T. is delivering his own sentiments.

The author's opinions of his own merits are nearly on a level with his opinions of the merits of the philosophy which he has adopted. We shall listen to him a little, while he talks of both. He begins his General Introduction in the following strain:

'Philosophy,' says Hierocles, 'is the purification and perfection of human life. It is the purification, indeed, from material irrationality, and the mortal body; but the perfection, in consequence of being the resumption of our proper felicity, and a re-ascent to the divine likeness. To effect these two is the province of *Virtue* and *Truth*; the former exterminating the immoderation of the passions; and the latter introducing the divine form to those who are naturally adapted to its reception.'

"Of philosophy thus defined, which may be compared to a luminous pyramid, terminating in Deity, and having for its basis the rational soul of man and its spontaneous unperverted conceptions,—of this philosophy, august, magnificent, and divine, Plato may be justly called the primary leader and hierophant, through whom, like the mystic light in the inmost recesses of some sacred temple, it first shone forth with occult and venerable splendor. It may indeed be truly said of the whole of this philosophy, that it is the greatest good which man can participate: for if it purifies us from the defilements of the passions, and assimilates us to Divinity, it confers on us the proper felicity of our nature. Hence it is easy to collect its pre-eminence to all other philosophies; to show that where they oppose it they are erroneous; that so far as they contain any thing scientific they are allied to it; and that at best they are but rivulets derived from this vast ocean of truth.

"To evince that the philosophy of Plato possesses this pre-eminence; that its dignity and sublimity are unrivalled; that it is the parent of all that ennobles man; and that it is founded on principles, which neither time can obliterate, nor sophistry subvert, is the principal design of this Introduction."

A passage where a sort of summary of this magnificent philosophy is given, is a morsel too rich to be neglected:

"And now having with venturous, yet unpresuming wing, ascended to the ineffable principle of things, and standing with every eye closed in the vestibules of the adytum, found that we could announce nothing concerning him, but only indicate our doubts and disappointment, and having thence descended to his occult and most venerable progeny, and passing through the luminous world of ideas, holding fast by the golden chain of deity, terminated our downward flight in the material universe, and its undecaying wholes, let us stop awhile and contemplate the sublimity and magnificence of the scene which this journey presents to our view. Here then we see the vast empire of deity, an empire terminated upwards by a principle so ineffable that all language is subverted about it, and downwards by the vast body of the world. Immediately subsisting after this immense unknown we in the next place behold a mighty all-comprehending one, which, as being next to that which is in every respect incomprehensible, possesses much of the ineffable and unknown. From this principle of principles, in which all things casually subsist absorbed in superessential light and involved in unfathomable depths, we view a beauteous progeny of principles, all largely partaking of the ineffable, all stamped with the occult characters of deity, all possessing an overflowing fulness of good. From these dazzling summits, these ineffable blossoms, these divine propagations, we next see being, life, intellect, soul, nature and body depending; *monads* suspended from *unities*, deified natures proceeding from deities. Each of these monads too, is the leader of a series which extends from itself to the last of things, and which while it proceeds from, at the same time abides in, and returns to its leader. And all these principles and all their progeny are finally centered and rooted by their summits in the first great all-comprehending one. Thus all beings proceed from, and are comprehended in the first being; all intellects emanate from one first intellect; all souls from one first soul; all natures blossom from one first nature; and all bodies proceed from the vital and luminous body of the world. And lastly, all these great monads are comprehended in the first one, from which both they and all their depending series are unfolded into light. Hence this first one is truly the unity of unities, the monad of monads; the principle of principles, the God of gods, one and all things, and yet one prior to all."

How singularly unfortunate the world has been! This science of sciences, this philosophy of philosophies shone forth, for a moment, "with an occult and venerable splendour," in the days of Plato, but

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was immediately lost in darkness. For says our author;

"The depth of this philosophy does not appear to have been perfectly penetrated except by the immediate disciples of Plato, for more than five hundred years after its first propagation. For though Crantor, Atticus, Albinus, Galen, and Plutarch, were men of great genius, and made no common proficiency in philosophic attainments, yet they appear not to have developed the profundity of Plato's conceptions; they withdrew not the veil which covers his secret meaning, like the curtains which guarded the adytum of temples from the profane eye; and they saw not that all behind the veil is luminous, and that there divine spectacles every where present themselves to the view. This task was reserved for men who were born indeed in a baser age, but who being allotted a nature similar to their leader, were the true interpreters of his mystic speculations. The most conspicuous of these are, the great Plotinus, the most learned Porphyry, the divine Jamblichus, the most acute Syrianus, Proclus, the consummation of philosophic excellence, the magnificent Hierocles, the concisely elegant Sallust, and the most inquisitive Damascius. By these men, who were truly links of the golden chain of deity, all that is sublime, all that is mystic in the doctrines of Plato (and they are replete with both these in a transcendent degree,) was freed from its obscurity and unfolded into the most pleasing and admirable light. Their labours, however, have been ungratefully received. The beautiful light which they benevolently disclosed, has, hitherto unnoticed, illumined philosophy in her desolate retreats, like a lamp shining on some venerable statue amidst dark and solitary ruins. The prediction of the master has been unhappily fulfilled in these his most excellent disciples. 'For an attempt of this kind,' says he, 'will only be beneficial to a few, who from small vestiges, previously demonstrated, are themselves able to discover these abstruse particulars. But with respect to the rest of mankind, some it will fill with a contempt by no means elegant, and others with a lofty and arrogant hope, that they shall now learn certain excellent things.' Thus with respect to these admirable men, the last and the most legitimate of the followers of Plato, some from being entirely ignorant of the abstruse dogmas of Plato, and finding these interpreters full of conceptions which are by no means obvious to every one in the writings of that philosopher, have immediately concluded that such conceptions are mere jargon and reverie, that they are not truly Platonic, and that they are nothing more than streams which, though originally derived from a pure fountain, have become polluted by distance from their source. Others, who pay attention to nothing but the most exquisite purity of language, look down with contempt upon every writer who lived after the fall of the Macedonian empire; as if dignity and weight of sentiment were inseparable from splendid and accurate diction; or as if it were impossible for elegant writers to exist in a degenerate age. So far is this from being the case, that though the stile of Plotinus and Jamblichus is by no means to be compared with that of Plato, yet this inferiority is lost in the depth and sublimity of their conceptions, and is as little regarded by the intelligent reader, as motes in a sun-beam by the eye that gladly turns itself to the solar light."

This solar light however shone forth in its meridian splendour, only for a very short time. It was quickly buried again in profound night, and till the present moment, has never been restored to the dark and bewildered eyes of mankind. Notwithstanding all the attainments which the moderns have vainly fancied they had made in science, they have made none at all. Instead of being very enlightened, as we fondly have supposed, we are in a state of the most profound ignorance and error. But, blessed day! Mr. Taylor has at last arisen; and all is about to be light! He is the only man, who, for these thousand years, has understood the philosophy of Plato; that doctrine which is the true light of the soul, and without which the mind of man is in a state of perfect chaos!

After telling us that the design of his Introduction is to evince that the philosophy of Plato possesses this divine and unparticipated attribute; and that to effect this design his first object is "to present the reader with the outlines of the principal dogmas of Plato's philosophy," he adds

"The undertaking is indeed no less novel than arduous, since the author of it has to tread in paths which have been untrodden for upwards of a thousand years, and to bring to light truths which for that extended period have been concealed in Greek. Let not the reader, therefore, be surprized at the solitariness of the paths through which I shall attempt to conduct him, or at the novelty of the objects which will present themselves in the journey: for perhaps he may fortunately recollect that he has travelled the same road before,* that the scenes were once familiar to him, and that the country through which he is passing is his native land. At least, if his sight should be dim, and his memory oblivious, (for the objects which he will meet with can only be seen by the most piercing eyes,) and his absence from them has been lamentably long, let him implore the power of wisdom,

> From mortal mists to purify his eyes,
> That God and man he may distinctly see.

"Let us also, imploring the assistance of the same illuminating power, begin the solitary journey."

We were amused with the author's account of the abortive attempts which have been made by some great scholars in this country, to understand the philosophy of Plato. It was a task too mighty for them, strong as they might be, and was reserved for the Herculean powers of Mr. Taylor!

"In our own country, however, though no one appears to have wholly devoted himself to the study of this philosophy, and he who does not will never penetrate its depths, yet we have a few bright examples of no common proficiency in its more accessible parts. The instances I allude to are Shaftesbury, Akenside, Harris, Petwin, and Sydenham. So splendid is the specimen of philosophic abilities displayed by these writers, like the fair dawning of some unclouded morning, that we have only deeply to regret that the sun of their genius sat, before we were gladdened with its effulgence. Had it shone with its full strength, the writer of this Introduction would not have attempted either to translate the works, or elucidate the doctrines of Plato; but though it rose with vigour, it dispersed not the clouds in which its light was gradually involved, and the eye in vain anxiously waited for its meridian beam."

The author after telling us that he himself has been the only legitimate student of the philosophy of Plato for these thousand years, very properly gives us an account of the great qualities which belong to that character:

"By a legitimate student, then, of the Platonic philosophy, I mean one who, both from nature and education, is properly qualified for such an arduous undertaking: that is, one who possesses a naturally good disposition; is sagacious and acute, and is inflamed with an ardent desire for

* Alluding to the Platonic doctrine of reminiscence. *Reviewer.*

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the acquisition of wisdom and truth; who from his childhood has been well instructed in the mathematical disciplines; who, besides this, has spent whole days, and frequently the greater part of the night, in profound meditation; and, like one triumphantly sailing over a raging sea, or skilfully piercing through an army of foes, has successfully encountered an hostile multitude of doubts;—in short, who has never considered *wisdom* as a thing of trifling estimation and easy access, but as that which cannot be obtained without the most generous and severe endurance, and the intrinsic worth of which surpasses all corporeal good, far more than the ocean the fleeting bubble which floats on its surface. To such as are destitute of these requisites, who make the study of words their sole employment, and the pursuit of wisdom but at best a secondary thing, who expect to be wise by desultory application for an hour or two in a day, after the fatigues of business, after mixing with the base multitude of mankind, laughing with the gay, affecting airs of gravity with the serious, tacitly assenting to every man's opinion, however absurd, and winking at folly however shameful and base—to such as these—and, alas! the world is full of such—the sublimest truths must appear to be nothing more than jargon and reverie, the dreams of a distempered imagination, or the ebullitions of fantastical faith."

"Let not such then presume to explore the regions of Platonic philosophy. The land is too pure to admit the sordid and the base. The road which conducts to it is too intricate to be discovered by the unskilful and stupid, and the journey is too long and laborious to be accomplished by the effeminate and the timid, by the slave of passion and the dupe of opinion, by the lover of sense and the despiser of truth. The dangers and difficulties in the undertaking are such as can be sustained by none but the most hardy and accomplished adventurers; and he who begins the journey without the strength of Hercules, or the wisdom and patience of Ulysses, must be destroyed by the wild beasts of the forest, or perish in the storms of the ocean; must suffer transmutation into a beast, through the magic power of Circe, or be exiled for life by the detaining charms of Calypso; and in short must descend into Hades, and wander in its darkness, without emerging from thence to the bright regions of the morning, or be ruined by the deadly melody of the Syren's song. To the most skilful traveller, who pursues the right road with an ardour which no toils can abate, with a vigilance which no weariness can surprise into negligence, and with virtue which no temptations can seduce, it exhibits for many years the appearance of the Ithaca of Ulysses, or the flying Italy of Æneas; for we no sooner gain a glimpse of the pleasing land which is to be the end of our journey, than it is suddenly ravished from our view, and we still find ourselves at a distance from the beloved coast, exposed to the fury of a stormy sea of doubts.

"Abandon then, ye groveling souls, the fruitless design! Pursue with avidity the beaten road which leads to popular honours and sordid gain, but relinquish all thoughts of a voyage for which you are totally unprepared. Do you not perceive what a length of sea separates you from the royal coast? A sea

> Huge, horrid, vast, where scarce in safety sails
> The best built ship, though Jove inspire the gales.

And may we not very justly ask you, similar to the interrogation of Calypso,

> What ships have you, what sailors to convey,
> What oars to cut the long laborious way?"

We have reserved to the last part of this review the author's high and indignant condemnation of the inductive philosophy of modern times. This wretched, grovelling, earth-born monster, has supplanted the fair, divine, and celestial beauty, with whom our author is so deeply enamoured, and expelled her from that throne which, without rivalry, she ought to hold, in the breasts both of Gods and men. That unworthy usurper is therefore a just object of the most intense detestation. "The deluded followers of this base and unseemly idol have been nursed," as our author says, "as it were in the bosom of matter," "they are the pupils of experiment," "the darlings of sense," "plunged in the sleep of sense," "and in a dark mire," "and the legitimate descendants of the earth-born race that warred on the Olympian gods."

"To such as these, who have gazed on the dark and deformed face of their nurse, till they are incapable of beholding the light of truth, and who are become so drowsy from drinking immoderately of the cup of oblivion, that their whole life is nothing more than a transmigration from sleep to sleep, and from dream to dream, like men passing from one bed to another,—to such as these, the road through which we have been travelling will appear to be a delusive passage, and the objects which we have surveyed to be nothing more than phantastic visions, seen only by the eye of imagination, and when seen, idle and vain as the dreams of a shadow."

We have extended this review too far already to examine our author's notable arguments against the method of induction; arguments by which Newton, Bacon, and all their followers, are shewn to be perverters of reason, and pernicious misleaders of mankind. Indeed it is now so generally understood, and is so very obvious in itself, that the inductive plan of philosophising is the only true road to the interpretation of the works of nature, that it would be wasting the time of our readers to make a single remark upon such arguments as are here brought against it. But there is something in the concluding part of this argument, where he contrasts the tendencies of the two species of philosophy, so highly in our author's stile, that we cannot forbear quoting it:

"Here then is the great difference, and a mighty one it is, between the knowledge gained by the most elaborate experiments, and that acquired by scientific reasoning, founded on the spontaneous, unperverted, and self-luminous conceptions of the soul. The former does not even lead its votary up to that one nature of the earth from which the natures of all the animals and plants on its surface, and of all the minerals and metals in its interior parts, blossom as from a perennial root. The latter conducts its votary through all the several mundane wholes up to that great whole the world itself, and thence leads him through the luminous order of incorporeal wholes to that vast whole of wholes, in which all other wholes are centered and rooted, and which is no other than the principle of all principles, and the fountain of deity itself. No less remarkable likewise is the difference between the tendencies of the two pursuits: for the one elevates the soul to the most luminous heights, and to that great ineffable which is beyond all altitude; but the other is the cause of a mighty calamity to the soul, since, according to the elegant expression of Plutarch, it extinguishes her principal and brightest eye, the knowledge of divinity. In short, the one leads to all that is grand, sublime, and splendid in the universe; the other to all that is little, groveling, and dark. The one is the parent of the most pure and ardent piety; the genuine progeny of the other are impiety and atheism. And, in fine, the one confers on its votary the most sincere, permanent, and exalted delight; the other continual disappointment, and unceasing molestation."

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There is a note subjoined to this passage in which the wisdom and modesty of Mr. Taylor is as remarkable as the solidity and truth of his philosophy, and the elegant purity of his stile.—"That this must be the tendency of experiment," says he, "when prosecuted as the criterion of truth is evident from what Bacon, the prince of modern philosophy" [the prince indeed, as with astonishing sagacity he first discovered the true road to the interpretation of nature, and with wonderful accuracy laid down the notes for travelling in it, rules by the observance of which so many astonishing discoveries in the works of nature have been made] "says in the 104th aphorism of his Novum Organum, that *baseless fabric of a vision*." Such is the opinion which we are now, since we are enlightened, after a thousand years of darkness, by the only philosopher by whom the earth has during that long period been blessed, such is the contemptuous opinion which we must entertain of a work which we have been taught to consider as one of the most sublime productions of the human mind, and perhaps the greatest gift which ever one man made to the human race. What is it then which is said in the 104th aphorism of this "*baseless fabric of a vision?*" Bacon had been explaining the strong tendency of the human mind to fly to theories and conjectural speculations, rather than submit to the slow and careful examination of nature, and the mischief to science and the improvement of mankind which had resulted from this propensity; and he adds, Itaque hominum intellectui non plumæ addendæ, sed plumbum potius & pondera; ut cohibeant omnem saltum & volatum. Atque hoc adhuc factum non est; quum vero factum fuerit, melius de scientiis sperare licebit. Our author piquantly remarks, that "a considerable portion of lead must certainly have been added to the intellect of Bacon when he wrote this aphorism."

When a man publishes a twelve-penny pamphlet, such as that which we saw, a few weeks ago, containing a *full refutation* of the philosophy of Newton, it excites only our pity; but when we observe a work of the magnificence and importance of the present committed to the hands of a similar person, our pity is swallowed up in indignation. So much for Mr. Taylor's general introduction to the philosophy and writings of Plato. We shall consider the merits of his translation in our next number. M.

Travels from Hamburg through Westphalia, Holland, and the Netherlands. By Thomas Holcroft. 2 *vols. 4to. 5l. 5s. R. Phillips.*

We must own that the first appearance of this work by no means prepossessed us in its favour. "The spirit and liberality of Mr. Phillips, the publisher," which Mr. Holcroft very much admires, have, by the addition of a number of rudely-executed plates, found means to raise the price of the work so as to place it beyond the reach of most ordinary readers; a thing which we could excuse in some massy volume of modern history, or biography, but which we must look upon as altogether unpardonable in a book of travels. Fortunately, however, for such spirited booksellers, there are in this nation a number of persons who furnish their libraries, as a part of household decoration, and who might not be so apt to admit a book of travels if it came humble and unadorned, and at the expence of a few shillings.

There is another piece of quackery which must be obvious to every person who opens the work before us; and for this the author himself is alone chargeable. It has of late been the fashion with many sagacious authors to catch the attention of their readers with a facetious table of contents prefixed, by way of bill of fare, to each chapter; a custom probably suggested by the success attendant on similar ingenious inscriptions which so powerfully attract the attention of the passenger to our milliners' and barbers' shops; we mean the places formerly known by these names. Of the authors who have contrived to supply, by the waggishness of their table of contents, any deficiencies in the entertainment of the subject matter, the ingenious Peter Pindar has been particularly remarked; yet we conceive that our author in many instances of this sort will not yield him the palm of dexterity. In reading a table of contents, we usually expect to find some indication of what is to follow; and in a book of travels, where a great variety of objects is described, such an assistant is a matter of great convenience. Mr. Holcroft, however, has too much wit to give his reader such insight all at once; he indeed contrives to draw up his table of contents so as to arrest the attention of the reader, not however from a desire to acquire information about such and such striking objects, but from a curiosity to ascertain what possibly can be made to follow such curious titles. Who shall divine the substance of Chap. XXXIII. from the following table of contents? "Beautiful country near Clermont—Chantilly—Former and present sensations—The Great Condé—The suffering Exile—Serious Questions—Progress of the Passions—The Wish of Humanity—Alarming Recollections—Who shall analyse Paris?—St. Denis and its lost treasures—A Legendary Sketch—Remarkable painting by Albert Durer." One will wonder on reading this table of contents how the various subjects it refers to can be crowded into one chapter; he will be still more amazed to learn that they are all dispatched in three pages and a half of loose print encircled by a fashionable margin. *The Great Condé* is a title that no reader can pass; yet our author does not find him of sufficient importance to arrest his progress long; for after just mentioning the chateau of Chantilly and its stables, we are told, "All these belonged to the descendants of the great Condé; and splendour itself was illustrated by his name:" and this is all we have got under the magnificent title of *the Great Condé!* For several of the other items of the contents, such as "Progress of the Passions," and "The Wish of Humanity," we shall in vain search in the chapter itself.

The contents indeed seem in general selected, rather or the oddity of association than for any light they throw on the subject. For example, we have, prefixed to Chap. XXXI. this label: "Travelling companions—Sick Ladies, a Lap-dog, a Hound, a Hero, and a Sabre—Windmills for Oil manufactures—Dangers of paved roads in bad repair—False promises—A good Dinner—Fleeting Sorrows, &c. &c." Such methods of attracting the attention of the

reader, and putting him in good humour are very allowable in their proper place. We have no fault to find with them at the commencement of each canto of a burlesque poem, or each chapter of an humorous novel. But we own that such quaintness, such affectation of drollery, seem very much out of place in a book of travels which professes to give an authentic account of the manners of nations, and even to philosophise on their causes and consequences. It certainly does not increase the reader's opinion of the traveller's good faith, when he finds a trick played upon his curiosity in the contents of every chapter, and his expectations so repeatedly turned off with a joke.

There is yet another piece of quackery which has of late been practised to a most nauseating extent by a number of travellers who have not Mr. Holcroft's humour to combine a table of contents. It has become much the practice with those who set about furnishing a book of travels to eke out their scanty facts, and cover their want of information, by what they are willing to call *fine reflections* and *sentimental appeals to the heart*. These flourishes have this particular advantage, that it requires little or no ingenuity to find sufficient occasion for their introduction whenever it suits the convenience of the author. 'Tis but conjuring up a ragged beggar girl, or an unthatched cottage by the way side; or indeed there is no reason why a dead frog or a withered thistle may not serve the purpose. When an author can so easily find materials on which he may hang page after page of sentimental reflections, it is not at all necessary that he should know a very great deal about the country he describes: he may fill up his volume quite as well, whether he has travelled through it leisurely and in broad day-light; or whether he has been conveyed (like Dr. Johnson, when he saw no trees in Scotland) in a post-chaise with the blinds up, and at midnight.

These writers of sentimental travels, who for obvious reasons, have of late become very common, claim withal to be looked upon as the followers of Sterne! To imitate the peculiarities of a writer, whose reputation in a great measure depends on these peculiarities, is of all attempts the most absurd, and never fails to produce ridicule and contempt. The *Sentimental Journey* engages from its novelty, and an end is judiciously put to the work before the reader has had time to become familiar and fatigued. But to imitate the capricious sallies of Sterne, which give an agreeable zest to a short fiction, in a work of length, intended to describe real objects, and to instruct one nation in the manners of another, is a conceit, a folly (or what shall we call it) which we should not have expected in the author of Hugh Trevor. Does Mr. Holcroft really imagine that he has given us a livelier picture of the immense volumes of smoke thrown out of the tobacco-pipe of a German, by the Sternean exclamation, "Pf! pf! Hu, hu, hu! I am stifled!" Such sallies occasionally, however, were they equally short, we could pardon; but to be haunted by sentiment in every chapter, almost exceeds our endurance; especially when the sentiments are beyond our comprehension. A German looked upon our author's wearing spectacles, and taking them off to read, as a piece of foppery and affectation, upon which Mr. H. makes the following reflection: "Is there a man who does not, or cannot recollect how angry he has often been, that he could not make all the world as wise as himself? There is blindness that cannot read with spectacles; there is blindness that cannot read without spectacles; and there is blindness that can neither read with nor without spectacles."—We can read all this, without spectacles; but we can understand it, neither with nor without them.

Mr. Holcroft's sentiments indeed frequently bear the appearance of the effusions of a man of real genius! yet at times they are so long and commonplace, and at others so full of conceit, that we are by turns tempted to yawn and to smile. The bad roads from Brussels to Lisle suggest among other reflections the following:—"On an appointed day, a whole nation will rise early to hunt after pleasure, which no one knows where to find; will hurry from place to place through the rain and the mire; will catch colds and fevers; will seek disease or death in various forms; and return home worn, fatigued, exhausted, and ill-humoured: and this will be called a feast. If, on an appointed day, a whole nation would rise and go forth with the same eagerness to the performance of some public work, how happy would the knowledge of the good they are doing render them! How truly merry would be their hearts, how chearful their return, how sweet their sleep, and how exulting the triumph of their labours! Such actions would record themselves. The praise bestowed on them would be neither false nor forced: it would live in the hearts of men, flow from their lips, and be repeated from generation to generation." The first part of this reflection we shrewdly suspect to be a sly hit at the citizens of London, for the allusion to the Epping-hunt is too evident to be mistaken: as to the latter part, we recollect to have read something of the same nature in a book called *Political Justice*. Sentiment, particularly when affected and wire-drawn, has the worst effect on the narrative with which it is intermixed; it diminishes the reader's confidence in the traveller's veracity in as great a degree as his belief is increased by plainness and simplicity of style. When the sentiment is evidently intended to be more striking than the fact to which it alludes, one is always apt to suspect that instead of the sentiment being produced by the fact, the fact has been introduced, nay perhaps invented, to give occasion for a display of the sentiment.

These most prominent blemishes in Mr. Holcroft's travels, certainly do not prejudice the reader in his favour: they are however not peculiar to him, but in a great part the faults of the age: it is on this account we have remarked upon them so particularly, as it is doubly vicious in a man of genius to countenance the depravities of taste which prevail in his times. Mr. H. however has made amends for his affectation and his attempts at quackery, by presenting us with many curious traits of manners which shew a very peculiar sagacity of observation. He is a traveller of an uncommon class: he passes indeed, like others, through bad roads, lodges at uncomfortable inns, sees great

buildings, and learns the history of several famous exhibitions; but in his manner of describing these, there is something very original. His opportunities do not seem to have been great; he appears to have had very little intercourse with those societies which in every large metropolis are distinguished by the name of *the world*. Some other lately published books of travels, one in particular, gives us much more information with regard to those persons who at present act a conspicuous part in France, and the modes which prevail at Paris in the fashionable circles. But as far as Mr. H's observations have reached, the pictures he gives us are lively and instructive. He has viewed what may be called the *outside* of the nation he visited: he has observed them in their streets, in their coffee-houses, in their public walks; he has noted the structure of their public and private buildings; he has frequented those places where it was customary for them to assemble and associate for the purposes of amusement, recreation, and pleasure; their public decrees, their sign-boards and their placard posts, afford him opportunities for marking their national character and contrasting them with their neighbours. This manner of viewing a nation, which is in the power of every traveller, independent of introductions and connections, is, in the hands of a man of no talents, in danger of becoming a mere insipid catalogue of places and objects. In the hands of our author, however, it affords an opportunity for many curious observations, and for marking many minute traits of national character which are seen by every one, but almost never attended to.

Mr. H.'s course through Germany was rapid; the passage-boat, the inn, and the diligence formed the whole sphere of his observation. Yet even in these he finds several striking traits of national manners. A German is equally distinguished for his phlegm and his loquacity; in his intercourse with the fair sex he has no idea of that gallantry which distinguishes his neighbours of France and England; a lady is nowise disgusted to be involved by her lover in a cloud of smoke; a German male servant enters a lady's bed-room, without the least ceremony; and if a stranger not accustomed to such boorish freedom take offence, the servant cannot understand the reason of this supposed ridiculous delicacy. A German inn has seldom better provisions than bread and butter; a sandwich is a luxury; and in consequence no offence is taken that a traveller eats his own provisions. The passengers in a diligence are set down at a public post-house; they have afterwards to go in quest of an inn, and in the mean time, such is the honesty of the Germans, their baggage is quite safe. When the inn is found, it is often little better than an inhabited barn; and even where there are pretty good bed-rooms, they are intolerably crowded with guests; it would be thought quite ridiculous in a young lady to object to a man being put to sleep in another bed in the same apartment with her.

Such is a specimen of the traits of manners which Mr. Holcroft catches as he goes along; they are amusing, and strongly mark the degree of national civilization among the Germans of Lower Saxony.

The following description of a German *petit-maitre* will entertain most readers:

"A German *petit-maitre* is one of the most ludicrous of the tribe. Of this we met with a specimen at Bremen. The son of a rich merchant, who had travelled, occasionally dined at the table of our host; to whom the money of himself, and his friends, could not but be welcome. He had all the self-sufficient conceit of the French coxcomb, as painted by *Boissy* in *Le Français à Londres:* but with so utter an insensibility that, instead of being laughable, it was disgusting. He handled—the simile, though not refined, is so literally true that I cannot spare it—he handled the servant maids, who came within his reach, as a butcher in Smithfield market does cattle. It was the custom of the country, and gave them no offence. To the mistresses, if they were young, or handsome, he offered snuff in his gold-box, displayed his watch and his diamond ring, like a true trader carefully recounting how much they cost, and would honour them, if they pleased, by giving them a ride in his *stuhl-wagen*. The petit-maitre is a character not fit for a German: to complete him, his father should be a petit-maitre, and his mother a coquet; and to the honor of German good sense be it said, a family or race of petit-maitres is here a rarity.

"The travelled man, who gave himself these airs, and who affected a most profound knowledge of the code of politeness, dipped his potatoes into the dish at dinner, and skimmed the top of the rice pudding with his knife; which mode of feeding was common to himself, and his companions."

The description of some German travellers of fashion is no less amusing:

"On this moor was a post-house, at which we changed horses; and here were other travellers, going in the contrary direction. The weather was rainy, and they were persons of rank; yet they, like us, were exposed in open carriages. Their appearance to an untravelled Englishman would have been very strange. An old lady, among them, was rouged higher than a French *dame de la vieille cour:* she wore boots, had a loose dragging silk gown, with a laced cap put on as a drunken man does his wig; and was led about the extremely dirty yard by a German youth, as whimsically fine as herself; who delicately held the tips of her fingers, their hands raised as high as their heads. They came to us, pretending to inquire if we had met Colonel ——: but in reality to examine our mien and figures; which were as foreign to them as theirs were to us."

Mr. Holcroft's talent in drawing characters is well-known; the following one is a lively portrait of an amateur:

"We had another rencontre, but of a whimsical nature. While we resided at Altona, we had heard a violin player, at a private concert, whose powers were very extraordinary. He not only executed the most difficult music with uncommon taste and feeling, but never failed in producing the harmonic tones with great power and sweetness; and, in addition, played more tricks on the instrument than I had supposed possible. The poor man's misfortune was that of being half mad; he could think and talk of nothing but playing the fiddle, and himself. He drank brandy; and his mind was in a continual state of fermentation. He deeply felt the injustice that had been done his talents, not knowing that his folly was the occasion of it; but every moment forgot this injustice at the recollection of the miracles he should perform, and the astonishment he should excite, the next time of being heard.

"A party had been formed against him, at Altona, by a rival performer, a Jew, and his partizans. There was no

parity of merit between them: in the one, it was the effusion of feeling and genius; and in the other the accurate velocity of a well-regulated machine. Unfortunately, the dash of madness was so ridiculous in its effects, that poor genius had no chance.

"This man's name was *Scheller:* he was or had been first musician to the Duke of Wurtemberg; and was travelling with his wife, who sung ill enough; he expecting to enrapture all hearers, and to make his fortune. To this end, he had taken a benefit at the play-house at Altona; and we and a few friends bought tickets. To his great disappointment, our small party formed a third of his audience.

"Poor *Scheller* and his wife were now our fellow-travellers, though not in the same *stuhl-wagen*; and, seeing us when we alighted, he ran up to me, with his crazy gratitude and German fondness, and kissed me on both sides of the face, before I could recover my surprise. I was his *lieber bester freund! ein guter herrlicher mensch! ein wahrer kenner.** An Englishman hates to be kissed, by a man; yet, he must have had no touch of human affections, who could suddenly and rudely have repulsed poor wayward genius, thus becrazed, weather-beaten, and vagabond."

The sketches of manners given by our author in his flying tour through Germany, Holland and Flanders, are too rapid and varied to admit of any analysis. We cannot blame him for having observed little; we are rather surprised that he saw and observed so much while he scarcely halted a day at any place he visited. At Antwerp our traveller saw the following scene, which a future age may read of and half disbelieve:

"We asked our guide if there were any remarkable churches; and, having repeated what every body has heard of the great church, he told us that in his opinion the finest of all was the late Dominicans'. Thither we went, entered it, and saw such objects as are common to Catholic churches: but nothing which gave this a decided superiority. Our guide however told us something much finer was yet to come; and we accordingly followed him, and the sexton.

"They walked through several aisles, opened an iron gate, and led us——where? To paradise, to purgatory, into the society of legendary saints, martyrs, prophets, and evangelists, each sculptured in stone, and labelled. What a pleasure to become personally and individually acquainted with the real figures; and so as not to be mistaken, or in danger of confounding persons! The cock that crowed to Peter, Christ crucified, rods of iron, painted red to represent streams of blood issuing from his wounds and falling into the hands of Mary, who stood in coloured stone, all the figures of Mount Calvary, Moses, David, angels, a dragon, a dog with a bone, St. Peter treading on him, hell carved in wood and painted flame colour, the damned grinning in horrible caricature, Christ, in all the gradations of the cross, the grave, and the resurrection, candle-sockets in abundance to illuminate purgatory, every object, the trivial, the despicable, and the grand, all that can work upon the imagination, to terrify, bewilder, and leave it in stupid amazement, seem there to be collected.

"I never before was so forcibly struck with the practice and the arts of the Catholic religion. Reading cannot produce the same strong conviction and feelings as those which are produced by the sight of such objects. There is a diffidence in the minds of readers: they justly fear the writer should be prejudiced, inaccurate, or exaggerate from a desire to astonish. The enumeration I have made of the objects this place contained would appear insignificant, were the account books to be produced belonging to the monastery in which the different items are or were inserted.

"Of the sensations of the ignorant, when they behold such spectacles, it is impossible to form a true estimate: though there are incidents that will enable us to guess. Of this nature was the behaviour of our guide. He was a Catholic; he took off his hat, when he approached the place; and the awe that was painted in his countenance was very expressive. He assured us, with great solemnity, every thing we beheld was the very truth, all was here shewn just as it had happened; for a Dominican friar had made a journey to Mount Calvary, in the Holy land, that nothing might possibly be omitted, or mistaken.

"I put the poor fellow's simplicity to the proof, by asking him if the friar had seen the dragon (to which I pointed) when he was at Mount Calvary? And the simple fellow answered, with eager earnestness, 'Oh yes! He had seen there every thing that was to be seen here!'

On his arrival at Paris, our author's observations assume a more systematic form. He sets about a regular plan of describing the appearance of the objects which make the greatest impression on the eye of the stranger; and he wishes to carry the reader along with him in the gradual advances he makes in the knowledge of this wonderful city. In describing the public buildings however, the streets, and places of common resort, he at times is minute even to tediousness. These objects have often been described before; to one who has read former descriptions the repetition is tedious; and a detail of façades, and ill-contrived ornaments is scarcely entertaining or instructive to any reader. Details of considerable length are also often introduced respecting the scenes which have of late years passed at Paris. They are in general already well known; and what is more, they do not mark the national character; for Mr. H. himself is careful to observe that these scenes were frequently the result of momentary phrenzy, and might have happened in any nation wrought up to the same pitch of madness. Some of these convenient episodes must however be allowed to a traveller who possesses other good qualities.

The general sentiment produced in the reader's mind by Mr. H.'s description of the Parisians, is extremely unfavourable to that vain people; and his pictures in this respect are characterized by too many indisputable circumstances not to be just. The Parisians, he informs us, affect to be the gayest people upon earth; yet nothing appears to be less known among them than internal satisfaction, which alone can produce real gaiety. A want of internal ease is perceptible both in their countenances and demeanour to the attentive observer, amidst the continual and overdone affectation of mirth. In their public buildings and their public places of resort, there is visible a perpetual aiming at something splendid, grand, *imposing* as they term it; but without any real ideas of magnificence. Their palaces are covered with a profusion of ornaments, and built in that style which is most capable of grandeur; but from an utter want of conception of the effects to be derived from space, the parts of the buildings as well as the ornaments are so crowded on each other, that they produce littleness instead of magnificence. The ornaments in general

* His dearest best friend! A good, a worthy man! A true connoisseur.

are out of all proportion to the main building, which they are intended to adorn. It is the same with the public gardens. Some of them are large, and might, if laid out with simplicity and attention to the effects of space, be really grand. But such is the taste of the Parisians that these gardens are universally frittered down into such a number of small compartments, and so intersected in every direction with narrow winding alleys, that every idea of the sublime is lost, and an Englishman finds himself amidst the mazes of a tea-garden! Meanness and dirtiness are readily found in many quarters of Paris without any mixture; but greatness is never found unconnected with meanness and dirtiness. Every palace, every splendid garden, is degraded by a number of low, shabby shops, and by affording stations to the most beggarly of the retailers of trumpery wares. Even the Palais Royal, that national boast, is disfigured by its narrow and dirty approaches, the mean appearance of the motley groupes by which it is frequented, and the mixture of shoe-black shops, &c. with those gay ones which are intended to attract the fashionable. Every art is employed to make the shops in this palace appear splendid; one device, truly characteristic of the nation, is mentioned by Mr. H.—it is a common practice to hang up mirrors so that the goods in the shops, by reflection, appear double to those without. This artifice is so well executed, that our author in one instance was for a considerable time completely deceived by it, and imagined a jeweller's shop, not equal to hundreds of the same sort in London, to be the richest and largest in the world.

Such are some of the observations made by Mr. Holcroft with respect to the Parisians. Those who would wish to learn his ideas of them more fully must read the book, for his detail is so variegated and intermingled, that it is impossible to give a full account of it in a review. Of the public events and characters to which he alludes, his description of Bonaparte is the most striking and the most interesting at the present moment. We shall therefore from this part present our readers with an extract; the character as it is drawn at length, extends over many chapters, and exhibits the touches of a master's hand. The impatience with which Bonaparte bears contradiction, is characterised by the following anecdotes:—

"*Volney* had believed in the virtue of Bonaparte, had been his friend and admitted to his familiarity; and, being a sincere lover of freedom himself, he continued its defender. Not sufficiently aware of the effects which the exercise of power had produced, that remonstrance was become offensive, and difference of opinion an insult, he was one day endeavouring to convince the Chief Consul of the mischief he would do to mankind, by again conferring power on the priesthood, admitting the smallest of its once usurped claims, and burthening people who were of a different creed with a general and unjust tax.

"Bonaparte replied—'Why do you mention the people? I do but act in this business according to their desire: a large majority of the people wish for the re-establishment of the church.'

"Forgetful of the possibility, or perhaps not suspecting it, that the truth which instantly occurred to his mind should so deeply wound the pride of a man whose supremacy was so recent, *Volney* answered—'Were you to act according to the will of the majority, you must immediately cede your power; the majority of the people would vote for the return of the *Bourbons*.'

"The rage of the Chief Consul was ungovernable: the common report is, that he instantly struck *Volney*, and ordered him from his presence; since which he has never again entered the palace of the Tuileries.

"No powers of mind can rescue the man, who is the slave of anger, from actions that are worthy only of a lunatic.

"Of what an opposite complexion is the following anecdote! In the true spirit of French declamation, some one affirmed, speaking to Bonaparte, that England was far behind France in truly understanding the principles of liberty; to which he replied; "it would be well for the latter, if it did but enjoy one-tenth part of English freedom.'

"He will seldom condescend to argue; and, when he does, he considers it as insolence, in any one, who dares to be of a different opinion.

"Music being one day the subject of discussion, he affirmed 'it is so simple in its principles that no man can be ignorant of it, who understands the mathematics; it was the most monotonous of studies, for it had no greater variations than may be found in different angles, obtuse and acute.'

"His opponent, a musical composer, replied—'I fear, Citizen Consul, this character of it can scarcely be just; since monotony is the thing that music can least endure.' To which the Citizen Consul answered—'It appears, then, you understand the subject better than I!' and turned away on his heel.

"He has the ambition to be, but is not, a good public speaker: I mean in manner: for he is said often to have a clearer view of the subject debated than better orators. When the question of divorce was under discussion, he played a trick, which too maliciously exhibited the servile obedience of the pretended legislators of France.

"He was supposed to be the unqualified enemy of divorce; and accordingly *Portalis* opened the subject, before the members of the *Tribunat*, by an oration in which all the miseries attributed to that law were rehearsed, and declaimed against with violence. Others spoke to the same effect, till Bonaparte interrupted them, and began his speech by saying, or insinuating, they had not thought and spoken like philosophers, but with the partial and prejudiced views of a very opposite class; and went on to prove that, though there were evils in the then law of divorce, which called for remedy, there were in the thing itself benefits, that ought never to be forgotten or neglected. Hearing this, the members, who had not spoken, reserved themselves for another discussion, and went home and rewrote their orations; after which, the question of divorce was treated with all the discriminating respect any man could desire. This was a great triumph to the small party, who had the courage to shew the least inclination in its favour."

His physiognomy and appearance are traced very distinctly:

"I have several times been close to his person: his stature is diminutive, his complexion sallow, and his physiognomy bears those marks that denote the labours of his mind; it is care worn; but it is also susceptible of great variety. From his atrabilarious complexion, choler might certainly be predicted; but, from the sedateness of his eye, not of that sudden and impetuous kind to which he is so very subject.

"The first time I saw him, in the apartments of the Tuileries, he passed very near me, was in his regimentals attended by his *état-major*, and walked a moderate pace.

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He returned, after the parade, through the same apartments; the guards did not stand quite so close, and I had rather a better view of him.

"The next time I procured tickets to see him in this palace, just before he appeared, a quick march was beat, and he passed hastily, accompanied only by two officers.

"The manner was so different to that which I had before remarked in him that it surprized me; and that very evening it was reported, in all the polite circles of Paris, that a plot had been formed to assassinate him on the parade; that it had been discovered on the preceding day by General *Duroc*; and that three officers high in command, had been sent to the Temple.

"This report was denied in the journals; but I have good reason to believe it was true. There are people in Paris who know all such events, and they are constantly recounted in their evening societies. It was at this period, likewise, that the government of the palace, as it is called, underwent a total change. I put little stress on the hasty walk of Bonaparte; though, could it be proved to have been wholly without meaning, I should think it the whim of a very trifling mind.

"When he returned, his haste was less: at such times, petitions are usually delivered to him, which he receives with an affability that has not the least appearance of affectation; and yet it certainly is affected. He has no true sense of the benevolent and social duties of man; such things are now become in him the condescension of an imaginary deity to a wretched mortal, or something much lower: a worm, that he could crush; but that he graciously suffers to live.'

Mr. H. again saw him in a more finished form at the public procession to the church of *Notre Dame* when he went publicly to profess himself a Catholic:

"I procured a place immediately behind the guards, who lined the centre aisle, down which the procession passed.

"Unfortunately, these guards were so numerous, and arranged so close to each other, that it was difficult to get a peep, except over their shoulders; consequently I could not see far, either up or down the aisle. Had an assassin been there with a pistol in his hand, he would not have found a crevice through which effectually to direct the muzzle at the Chief Consul. The proofs are continual of the dread in which he lives; and the caution with which he appears in public.

"It was past mid-day before he arrived; and I patiently waited all these hours, and till nearly four in the afternoon, only to have a sight of him, as he passed and returned.

"I esteem the time as well spent. In the history of this man, there are events too uncommon, too extraordinary, ever to be forgotten; and of these the contrary and opposing qualities of his mind are far from the least.

"He descended the aisle, surrounded by attendants, with his hat off; it was the only time I so saw him: the sallowness of his complexion was overpowered by the emotions of thought; there was colour in his face; a gentle inclination to smile rendered his mouth pleasant; his aspect was gracious, his forehead large and open, his soul was in tune. I never beheld a physiognomy more apparently capable of all the grandeur of benignity.

In the whole range of thought, is there a more painful sensation than that qualities, which might have been so dignified in benevolence, so almost miraculous in virtue, should be perverted to ends at once so pernicious, so hateful, and so contemptible!

"My greatest, my most ardent desire, every where throughout this work, is to be a faithful historian: I say then, whenever I have seen him, his countenance has appeared thoughtful, but affable; and, from his actions, it was, past dispute, the affability of a mind accustomed to assume such a tone, and impart to the features such a seeming, as will best accord with the occasion, and effect a present purpose."

The following extract is rendered extremely interesting by the late occurrences in France. It gives an indubitable proof of the mean and implacably vindictive spirit of the First Consul:

"There are many of the enemies of Bonaparte who have wished to engage *Moreau* in raising a faction, of which he should be the head; but which he has constantly and firmly refused. He has answered: 'If the people are as you represent, anxious for change, let them speak and act for themselves; I neither desire the risk, the honours, nor the vices of such an attempt.'

"I give these as common reports, rendered probable by many circumstances. In every society, *Moreau* is praised, and advantageously contrasted with Bonaparte.

"Their busts, in plaister of Paris, are exposed for sale on every stall; and, before I left France, that of *Moreau* was said to sell much the best.

"Among the heads, etched as studies for young artists, is that of *Moreau*, in several sizes; and under one of them is inscribed *tête d'un homme*. In the plot to assassinate Bonaparte on the parade, as I have mentioned, there were persons who insinuated that *Moreau* had taken a part; and, rumour said, the First Consul sent for him and told him: 'I have heard you have joined assassins: I give no credit to any such tale; I know you to be incapable of a base action; but, such is the effervescence of mind among the military, that you will greatly oblige me if you will pass two or three days at your country house.'

"With this request *Moreau* willingly complied; but carefully returned on the third day; that no misconstruction, by any party, might be put on his conduct. This, I say, was the general conversation of the polite circles of Paris; in which it was added that these signs of defection in the army exceedingly agitated the mind of Bonaparte.

"He appears to have been guilty of a mistake, very unworthy the penetration of a great mind; which was that in the disposal of preferments and favours, he showed a decided partiality for the army of Italy; and a neglect for the army of the Rhine; to which, and to *Moreau*, all men whom I have heard speak allow France is much the most indebted for the proud rank she now holds.

"If this were the result of habits of intercourse with the army of Italy, some might call it amiable: I should think it an act of pitiful injustice. If it be jealousy of the renown of *Moreau*, it will deserve a worse name."

After the ample criticism and extracts we have given, there is no occasion to make any farther comments. There are faults both in style and matter; there is much affectation which ought to be retrenched; but at the same time few travellers either amuse or instruct so much as Mr. Holcroft has done in these volumes. Ω.

Lepidoptera Britannica, sistens digestionem novam insectorum Lepidopterorum quæ in magna Britannia reperiuntur. Auctore A. H. Haworth, Linn. Soc. Londini Socio, &c. &c. Apud Murray, Fleet-street; Pars. prima. 8vo. 15s.

While the science of botany has been prosecuted with no less success than diligence in Great Britain, the study of entomology, as far at least as may be collected from the publications on the subject, has by no means advanced with a corresponding rapidity; it has been justly observed that while most British insects have been described by one or other of the con-

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tinental entomologists, scarcely half of them have appeared in any British publication, though perhaps our cabinets are far from being deficient. The work of Berkenhout, which is at present we believe the only general and systematic compilation of British insects, is comparatively trifling, though it has undoubtedly been of much use in a science where so much depends upon clear and systematic arrangement. The publication of Mr. Donovan on this subject is confessedly a selection only of the most curious and interesting of the British insects. But an elaborate account of British entomology is now preparing by T. Marsham, Esq. of which the first volume containing the order *Cleoptera* has been lately published, and furnishes a specimen equally honourable both to his talents and his diligence. Mr. Haworth the author of the work before us, has for many years turned his attention to the birds, insects, and vegetables of this island, but more particularly to the *Lepidoptera* order of insects. The result has been the volume before us, which forms only the first part of the intended work, and comprehends four out of twelve *genera*, viz. *Papilio*, *Sphinx*, *Zygæna* and *Bombyx*. The plan on which the present work is constructed, is different from any other that has been adopted, and is remarkable for precision and distinctness.

The work is besides recommended by the novelty of its sectional, generic, and specific characters; the amplitude of the general descriptions, of which the merit and invention belong almost solely to the author; and the novelty and excellence of the observations which occasionally follow these descriptions. The author has also given a description of the times of feeding, the food, the times of the flight and the measure of the wings, which is equally novel, entertaining, and instructive. His diligence was such that, with a few exceptions, he has seen the different species here described in a living state. The places in which his researches have been more successfully carried on, are the counties of Middlesex, Sussex, Essex, Surrey and Kent; the isle of Thanet; Oxfordshire, Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, Westmoreland, the several ridings of York, and the county of the town of Kingston upon Hull. From the time when he first began to collect insects, he was careful to keep a regular journal of the times and places in which he had seen any of the *Lepidoptera* alive, whether in the *larva* (caterpillar,) *puppa* (chrysalis), or *Imago* (the winged or perfect) state; always bearing in mind the Linnæan maxim, "*nulla dies sine linea.*"

In order to facilitate the progress of the student, the author has given new terminations to such of the specific names as the celebrated Linnæus had omitted to terminate in a regular and uniform manner. That great man has given uniform terminations to most of the sections of his *genus phalæna* by which alone numerous species are decidedly referred to their proper divisions. Our author has endeavoured to perfect, as far as possible, the original intentions of Linnæus on this head, by adopting his uniform terminations and inventing others of a similar purport when necessary. By these means all the British moths are unerringly referred to their proper *genera*, and the disagreeable repetition of the genus along with every species is rendered unnecessary. It is much to be wished that a similar regard to uniformity of termination, were extended to every branch of the science of natural history; in which case the name itself would serve to distinguish the proper genus to which any species was to be referred. The specific and detailed descriptions given by the author, of every species and variety, are entirely new wrought, and taken from British specimens, except in a few instances, and in these he has adopted the descriptions of Linnæus, Fabricius or Villars, but always with proper acknowledgements. The descriptions of the *larvæ* and *puppæ* however, are principally taken from the *Entomologia Systematica* of Fabricius. The *habitats* or dwelling places of the *puppæ*, have not been mentioned, as these may be supposed to be in the vicinity of the food of the *larvæ*. But in those species whose larvæ penetrate into the earth to undergo their wonderful metamorphosis, the author has not failed to mention that they are subterraneous ones. The synonymes throughout the whole book the author has carefully examined with his own eyes, copying blindly from no one, and rejecting from all, Linnæus himself not excepted, such as appeared to him to be inaccurate or objectionable. Some idea of the author's plan may be formed from the following sketch of the four *genera* treated of in this part of his work.

Lepidoptera.

Alæ imbricatæ squamis minutis.
Os plerumque lingua involuta spirali.
Corpus *plus* minusve pilosum.

Genera.	*Sectiones.*	*Species.*
1. Papilio.	1. Equites Achivi (swallow tails)...	2
———	2. Parnassii (black veins).....	1
———	3. Danai Candidi (whites, 3 divisions.)	11
———	4. Danai festivi (ringlets).....	5
———	5. Nymphales Gemmati (ocellated).	8
———	6. Nymphales Phalerati. (3 divisions and 2 subdivisions (inocellated)..	18
———	7. Plebeii Rurales. (3 divisions and 2 subdivisions).....	19
———	8. Plebeii Urbicoli (skippers and grizzles).....	7
	Total species in this genus	72
2. Sphinx.	Legitimæ (hawk moths, 2 divisions).	13
———	Sesiæ (humming birds and clear-wings, 2 divisions and 3 subdivisions.).....	15
	Total species in this genus	28
3. Zygæna.	.....	4
4. Bombyx.	1. Maximi (the great, 3 divisions and 4 subdivisions.).....	18
———	2. Dentigeri (prominents, 2 divisions)	11
———	3. Cinerei (cinereous).....	11
———	4. Albi (whites, 2 divisions).....	10
———	5. Tristigmatiferi (darts, 2 divisions)	17
———	6. Bistigmatiferi. (two-ringed).....	16
———	7. Estigmatiferi (ringless, 5 divisions.)	15
	Total species in this genus.	28

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The whole number of species therefore in these four genera, which constitute the first part of the work on the Lepidoptera Britannica, amounts to 202. When the remaining parts comprehending the other 8 genera shall appear, the book will form by far the most valuable work that has hitherto appeared on the subject.

The author seems to have been particularly careful as well as full in his descriptions of the Lepidopterous insects in all the transformations through which they pass. The food, the *habitats*, the shape and colour of the *larvæ* and *puppæ*; the exact expanse of the wings, the colours, shape, food and *habitats* of the *Imago* or perfect insect, together with the season of the year, and time of day of its flying, are all described in a manner that exhibits no less talent than diligent perseverance. But the work is not only valuable to the man of science, by the perspicuity and precision of the technical descriptions, but must prove highly entertaining and instructive, even to the general reader, on account of the curious and interesting observations which frequently occur. As a specimen of the latter we rejoin the following account of the *Bombyx Quercus*.

" It is a frequent practice with our London *Aurelians*, when they breed a female of this and some other day flying species, to take her while yet a virgin into the vicinity of the woods, where if the weather is favourable she never fails to attract a numerous train of the males, whose only business appears to be an incessant, rapid, and undulating flight in search after their *unimpregnated* females. One of these is no sooner perceived than they become so enamoured of the fair and chaste relation, as absolutely to lose all kind of fear for their own personal safety, which, at other times, is effectually secured by the reiterated evolutions of their strong and rapid wings. So fearless indeed have I beheld them become on these occasions, as to climb up and down the sides of the cage which contained the dear object of their eager pursuit, in exactly the same manner as honey-bees which have lost themselves, climb up and down the glasses of a window. Whilst under this enervating fascination, if you even handle them, or suffer them to creep buzzing through your hands, they are not alarmed as they would be at another time; but continue their pursuit as before, endeavouring to gain admittance into the cage. Of course, any quantity of them may be readily taken and secured. In about four hours after the *Aurelians* have thought proper to admit a male of their liking into the cage, to the poor drowsy object of all this anxiety, she will not fail to deposit a great quantity of large *impregnated eggs* of an oval shape and whitish colour, blotched with darker marks, in miniature pretty much resembling those of a sparrow. It is very necessary to be remarked that the manners of this quiet captive female do not in any respect resemble those of her violent and restless partner; her disposition being sluggish and torpid in the extreme; she very rarely uses her wings, and appears much more inclined to repel than encourage the advances of her ravisher.

" The Aurelians call such a wedding as the above a *sembling (assembling) match!* and never succeed with any but a virgin female! By what unknown, and perhaps unnamed power, the males distinguish between a married female and one that has never been impregnated, I know not, and should be glad to learn. But that they can, and do make an unerring discrimination between the two, is well known to most *Aurelians*. They avoid the latter, and never approach her; while for the former they display all the solicitude and anxiety I have above so fully explained. There was once an instance of a male creeping into the pocket of our *Aurelian*, which contained a virgin female in his pocket box."

The English names, though highly fanciful for the most part, and sometimes even absurd, the Author has, perhaps justly, thought proper to preserve in parentheses immediately following the latin ones. Where they appeared very objectionable, however, they are omitted. This may be of considerable use, as the English names have also been used by Ray, Petiver, Harris, Wilks, Berkenhout, Donovan and others.

Mr. Haworth has also, in this volume, given dissertations upon several *genera* of plants, with descriptions of their places of growth, duration, and times of flowering. Many curious and interesting species, never before described, appear in these dissertations, particularly several species of exotic plants belonging to the order *succulentæ* which he himself now possesses in a living state. The dissertation on the *genus mesembryanthemum* which had been before given to the public, is here republished with a variety of improvements, both in the arrangement and the description of several new species. As these dissertations appear only in the shape of *addenda* to the principal work, it is unnecessary to consider them minutely.

It is proper to mention, however, that the author has founded a Society of Naturalists, distinguished by the name of *Aurelians*, whose object is to form a complete collection of British insects. The constant reference to this Society in the course of the work is rather tiresome. But the institution is certainly laudable, and it is natural for Mr. Haworth to dwell with parental fondness on a society, of which he himself is both the founder and curator. The work itself, both as to its plan and its execution, as far as that has hitherto been carried, can scarcely be too highly praised. It promises, when completed, to be beyond all comparison the best publication that has hitherto appeared on the British Lepidoptera, and affords well founded expectations that the naturalists of Great Britain will soon be no less famed for their entomological, than for their botanical knowledge. Σ.

Letters on the Study and Use of Ancient and Modern History. By John Bigland, *Author of Reflections on the Resurrection and Ascension.* 12*mo.* 6*s. Williams, Stationers' Court.*

The object of the present publication is to give a general view of the history of the world. This may at first perhaps appear a chimerical attempt when it is known that the whole is comprised in one 12mo volume. But when it is considered in how many scattered and unconnected publications the details of history are comprehended, it is certainly far from a useless employment to collect the leading facts and arrange them in such a manner as to methodize the ideas of the desultory reader on the subject, and give him who has neither leisure nor inclination to examine the details, a correct, though superficial view of the history of mankind. A summary of this sort may be comprised in a narrow compass, and if executed with accuracy may be a valuable acquisition to the world. The author therefore brings forward a summary

of the leading facts of ancient and modern history in chronological order, and divides the whole into ten distinct periods, of which the first includes the whole space of time from the earliest records to the subversion of the Babylonian monarchy. To this part of the subject ten or rather nine of the letters are appropriated, of which the first six are for the most part employed in discussing the nature and use of history; the advantages that result from its study; and the manner in which it ought to be prosecuted in order to produce the best possible effects. The seventh and ninth (for there is no eighth) letters are occupied with the scripture history and the reflections that naturally occur in discussing that period. The tenth, gives a general view of mankind during the time included in the sacred history, such as the state of learning among the Jews, Egyptians, Tyrians, &c. general remarks on the Egyptians and Babylonians; the origin of Zabaism, or the worship of the celestial bodies in Babylon, and a general description of the religion and degeneracy of that city down to the destruction of the Babylonian empire by Cyrus. This letter also includes the history of the foundation of Rome, and the primitive state of the Romans.—The second grand period contains the space of time that elapsed from the establishment of the Persian Empire by Cyrus, to its final overthrow by Alexander the Great. Only one letter is devoted to this period, which treats in a cursory manner of the state of the Persian monarchy, its wars with the Greeks and lastly with Alexander, by whom it was subdued. General observations are here made upon the progress of arts, sciences, and literature among the Persians, Egyptians, Jews, and Greeks, and also on the state of Rome at that time, and the savage condition of Europe.—The third period comprises the time that elapsed from the death of Alexander to the coming of Christ. In this period a general view is given of the ruin of the Macedonian empire, the conquest of the Jews by the Romans, the rapid aggrandisement of Rome, the establishment of the imperial government in that capital, and the introduction of Asiatic luxury. Several interesting reflections here occur on the state of society among the Romans, the systems of the philosophers, the origin of Polytheism, and idol worship, and on the general state of the human mind with regard to religious ideas at the time of the promulgation of Christianity.—The fourth period commences with the Christian æra, and ends at the elevation of Constantine to the sovereignty of the Roman empire. A summary of the most remarkable events under the imperial government, the irruptions of the northern nations, &c. is here given. Several judicious reflections are also made on the policy of the empire, its military system, and the persecution of the Christians.—The fifth period includes the reign of Constantine, the most remarkable political and military events of which are touched upon, and the motives, that induced that prince to embrace Christianity, investigated. The state of religion during this reign, the dissentions in the church, the building of Constantinople, and the advantages of its situation are also discussed. The time from the death of Constantine to the final subversion of the empire, constitutes the sixth period, which contains the history of the ravages of the northern nations and the schisms in the church. The seventh period begins at the subversion of the Roman empire, and continues till the reign of Charlemagne. This interesting period includes the history of the state of Europe after the subversion of the Roman empire, and the several kingdoms that arose in it; the origin of Mahometanism, conquests of Mahomet, and the rapid progress of his religion. A sketch is also given of the genius and manners of the Arabs or Saracens, and the progress of science and literature under the Caliphate. The eighth period commences at the death of Charlemagne, and continues to the 15th century. This period is peculiarly distinguished by the revival of letters, the invention of printing, the discovery of America, the consequent extension of commerce.—The ninth period includes that age of adventure and enterprize which begins at the middle of the 15th, and continues to the end of the 16th century.—The tenth and last period commences at that important æra, and gives a general view of modern times. During these latter periods the rise of the papal power, the origin of the crusades, and the gradual changes of manners in Europe come under investigation.

It is scarcely necessary to remark that this sketch of the history of the world must be extremely general. But it may be very important to the student of history, as a summary of the whole of what he has read in detail. This we conceive to be its principal use; for though it may also be considered as a sort of introduction to universal history, it might be apt to induce the beginner to rest satisfied with a very superficial view of the history of mankind. Perspicuity of arrangement is certainly of the last importance to the young student of history; but we very much question the wisdom of putting into the hands of youth short and superficial abstracts, which serve to render the subsequent perusal of the history of the same periods, in detail, tedious and irksome. Considering this work therefore as a summary of the history of the world intended to refresh the memories of those who have already perused it more at large, we think the author deserves high praise for the accuracy with which his design has been executed. D.

An Excursion in France and other Parts of Europe from the Cessation of Hostilities in 1801, *to the* 13*th of December* 1803. *By* Charles Maclean, M.D. 1 *vol.* 8*vo.* 6*s. Longman & Rees.*

The author of this *Excursion* had long a wish, as he informs us, of proving by experiment what he had before learnt by an induction of reasoning, viz. that the maladies usually called epidemic and pestilential were not in their nature contagious, and that under a due application of scientific principles they would easily admit of a cure. In order to prosecute this investigation, he set out for the *Levant* in the year 1800, but was stopped short on his way by the state of the Continent, at that time exposed to all the horrors of war. Disappointed in his original intention of trying the effect of his new mode of treatment of the plague, he endeavoured by means of the Spanish ambassador at Vienna to gain admission into Cadiz where an

epidemic disorder then raged. Here, however, he was again disappointed. He then applied to the Duke of Portland for a special commission to prosecute his inquiries in Egypt, but a third time failed of success. He thought, however, that the government of France which had always encouraged and patronized literature and science, *in their Journals*, would attend to his propositions with a more favourable ear. To that government he resolved therefore to apply, and set out from Hamburgh on his journey to Paris. His rout through Holland is described, and here and there some good observations on the state of that country occur. The dock-yards, formerly so flourishing, are now almost empty; the commerce of the nation, once the envy of the world, is scarce beginning to revive; and its industry, credit, and capital, once proverbial among nations, are now almost annihilated. After the author's arrival at Paris, he presented a memorial to the Minister of the Interior, describing his plan for investigating the nature of contagious disorders, by establishing an institution for that purpose at Constantinople or some other part of the Levant, which should be under the direction of the ambassadors of the different courts of Europe. This plan was submitted to the physicians for examination, and from that moment, the author informs us, he gave up his project as hopeless. He was right in his conjectures, for his proposals were no better treated in France than they had been in other countries. Despairing of being able to carry his project into execution, he dismisses the subject with asserting the soundness of the principles which he had advanced relative to the treatment of contagious disorders, and stating his readiness to risk his life in any plan that might be adopted for reducing them to practice. The state of medicine in France he describes as being in a most deplorable condition, which may easily be believed when we are informed that the common fee from a tradesman to his physician is half-a-crown for each visit. The physicians contrive, however, to pay their visits so frequently, that in the end these trifling fees amount to a respectable sum. Several remarks then occur on the political state of France, the character of Bonaparte and the Consular family. These, however, have been so often repeated, that it is unnecessary here to say any thing concerning them. The author institutes a comparison between London and Paris, and observes, perhaps justly, that the English might retort the *shop-keeping* charge on the French, for that Paris is a city of shops, while London is rather a city of warehouses. The author advances rather a novel proposition with respect to the freedom and independence of nations, which according to him are promoted by the capitals being situated on the sea coast, and retarded when the seats of government are placed in inland towns. He had an opportunity of visiting some of the prisons, which he describes to be in a most wretched state. This introduces some remarks on the administration of justice, which, according to the representations of our author, is the most unjust, partial, and oppressive that can well be conceived. He gives many unconnected anecdotes of the present rulers of France, and of the remnant of the political parties that arose in the course of the revolution. The circumstances of the detention of the English in France, on the breaking out of the war, are detailed, and the manner in which the author himself at length escaped. Several observations worthy of notice occur on the system of taxation, which, taking it altogether, is much more oppressive than in England. A considerable part of the book is occupied in the description of *Bourdeaux*, through which the author passed on his return to England, and the whole concludes with remarks on the plans of Bonaparte for invading this country.

From the above analysis, the reader will perceive that this is far from being a connected narrative. The book is for the most part composed of political anecdotes, and the memorials which the author at different times presented; which latter might very well have been spared. The anecdotes are, however, told in a pleasing and lively style, and the work is amusing. But we must confess that from a physician of such lofty pretensions we expected something more than an agreeable trifle. D.

Confessions in Elysium; or the Adventures of a Platonic Philosopher, taken from the German of Wieland. By John Battersby Erlington, *Esq.* 3 *vols.* 12*mo.* 12*s.* *Bell, Oxford-street.*

This work is taken, rather than translated, from the German of Wieland, whose writings are well known on the Continent. The translator, if that term may be used, has taken the liberty to leave out several parts, particularly the learned disquisitions, as he wished to make these volumes a pastime, and not a study. In order to fill up the gap, however, he has contrived to introduce into the story part of the adventures of *Agathon*, a name which gives the title to another work of Wieland. By this contrivance, and by the modern art of filling up nearly one third of the book with points and asterisks, he has managed so as to produce a sort of foreign *Olio* to which he himself with great propriety compares his work. The subject is the adventures of Peregrine Proteus, supposed to have been related by himself to his antagonist Lucian, in the Elysian fields, where they happened to meet each other, both divested of the prejudices by which they were actuated while on earth. It is well known that the Cynic philosopher *Proteus*, who had excited the attention of the public by his eccentricities, burnt himself alive at Olympia, having with his own hand set fire to the funeral pile.—He had long before declared his intention, and the time when it was to be put in execution. This circumstance together with the particular period appointed, which was during the celebration of the Olympic games, drew an immense crowd to witness the transaction. Some as might be expected almost deifyed him, others pitied him, and the greater part laughed at him as a crack-brained fanatic. Among the last mentioned was Lucian, the celebrated writer of the Dialogues, who afterwards ridiculed the life and exit of the Cynic with the utmost keenness of Satire. The object of Proteus appears to be to convince Lucian that his eccentricities were the effect of a crazed imagination, rather than a desire to impose upon the world, and if he was an enthusiast he was at

least an honest one. At the commencement of the work we are informed that the brain of Proteus had been turned by reading extravagant rhapsodies, stories of ghosts and hobgoblins, mysterious works on all the varieties of magic and the occult sciences, and particularly by endeavouring to extract some meaning from hieroglyphics and pieces of old parchment, where there was in fact no meaning to be extracted. Had he lived in our days he would have had no occasion to look for nonsense in old parchments. Many a splendid volume would have supplied him sufficiently, and this is perhaps one of the advantages which modern times possess over the ancient. Be that as it may, Proteus began to aspire after ideal perfection that might render him worthy of that converse with the gods, which, as his books had informed him, some favoured mortals had been permitted to enjoy. Plato's scheme of love fired his soul. He looked for some fair enchantress who glowed with his own enthusiasm, and with whom he could live in the soft union of the *Spirit*, and enjoy all the divine perfection of *Platonic love*. In his cousin *Calippe*, a young lady who was married against her inclination to an old dotard of the name of Menecrates, he found the object whom he sought. They contrived to meet unknown to the jealous husband, and the scene changed from a bower in the garden to the ladies bed-chamber. The place was most unfortunate for Platonic love, and a jealous fit of the good husband alone prevented him from becoming *a finished man*. Convinced by this adventure that he was not yet purified from the dregs of sensuality, he applied himself to the study of Platonic visions with new vigour, till hearing of the prophetess Theoclea of Hallicarnassus, who was said to be the daughter of the great Appollonius by a goddess, he repaired to that city, and sent a letter to the priestess, stating his endeavours after perfection, and his desire that she would direct his zeal in such a manner as that he might converse with the gods. A favourable answer was returned, and Theoclea appointed a meeting in the temple of *Venus Urania*, to which she was priestess. After various probationary rites, he was introduced to the goddess with the hopes that she would soon appear to him in *propria persona*. This accordingly happened, and he pressed in his arms the naked *Venus, alias* the rich courtezan *Mammilia*, who had contrived the whole machinery to divert herself with his enthusiasm. Ashamed to have been thus duped, he made his escape, and was again made the tool of an impostor, the brother of Theoclea. Disgusted with the world, he at length commenced Cynic, and growled and snarled at all mankind. In this character he visited Rome, and made such a noise that the princess Faustina desired to see him. A bett was laid that she could not melt the frigid soul of the philosopher. Her vanity and avarice were roused. She became the Cynic's pupil, and at last subdued him so far that he became the jest of all Rome, by exposing himself in a very ridiculous situation. He then left Rome and went to Athens inspired by his last adventure with more than Cynic ill-nature. Convinced that mankind would not be reformed by any thing he could say in his life time, he resolved to give them a lesson of fortitude in his death. He announced four years before hand that he intended to burn himself, which he actually performed at the stated period, and with his own hand fired the funeral pile.

This production is in the genuine manner of the German school, and in reality the author himself, though in a different cast, is the wrong-headed enthusiast described in his Proteus, with this difference, that he is by far less honest. At the commencement of the work one would be apt to imagine that he was reading a lively satire upon the ridiculous stories of ghosts, hobgoblins, and magicians, which might be of essential use to mankind by curbing the flights of inflamed imaginations. But upon perusing the whole, he will find the object to be, to encourage mankind to give full scope to the most beastly passions, and to convey a most artful and malevolent attack upon the Christian religion. The author's principles appear to be that as the passions cannot be subdued, they ought not to be curbed at all, and that we may *know* a thing to be *wrong* and yet *feel* it to be *right*. He too aspires after perfection as well as Plato, but instead of the perfection of a god, it is the perfection of a beast. The principles are indeed so gross, that while mankind retain their reason, they can scarcely be very hurtful, but the descriptions are dangerous and fascinating, and unfortunately well written. The book therefore, if read at all, ought to be perused with caution, especially by the young who are the most liable to be led away by its sophisms and extravagancies.

It may be proper to observe that before we had proceeded far in the perusal of this book, we discovered that it was another translation of the same work, of which a translation appeared some years ago, under the title of *Peregrine Proteus*. This is a specimen of that ingenuity which has of late been practised with so much success, and consists in making the public pay several times for the same book. To dispose of a publication, first entire, then in elegant extracts, then in beauties, then in selections, and then in several other shapes, is but a common exercise of the art: but to sell a book as completely new, with only a little variation of the old title, is a circumstance which shews that we are rapidly advancing to perfection in this species of literary ingenuity. It is, however, the duty of the reviewer to warn the public to take care of their pockets. Indeed, had it not been for the above-mentioned *finesse*, and the improper tendency of the book itself, we should not have noticed it so much at length. But though it did appear with a different title before the commencement of the *Literary Journal*, yet under the circumstances just stated, we thought ourselves called upon by a sense of duty to the public, to give our opinion of a work, the sentiments and object of which deserve to be reprobated by every friend of religion and morality. D.

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An Apology for the Conduct of the Gordons: containing the Whole of their Correspondence, Conversations, &c. with Mrs. Lee. To which is annexed, An accurate Account of their Examination at Bow-street, and their Trial at Oxford. By Loudoun Harcourt Gordon, *Esq.* 8*vo. pp.* 143. *Ginger.* 3*s.* 6*d*

The singular elopement which gave rise to this pamphlet is an event of a date so recent, that we presume it is quite unnecessary to introduce our observations on the work by any recapitulation of the leading circumstances which attended it. It is sufficiently notorious that a beautiful and chaste Lucretia was forcibly taken from her house in January last by two Tarquins, who conveyed her into Oxfordshire, and robbed her of that "which not enriched them, but made her poor indeed;" that this disconsolate and much injured lady found means to convey a note to her domestics, in consequence of which the fugitives were pursued, apprehended, and finally brought to trial; but it appearing on the trial, no doubt to the astonishment of all present, that the lady went "nothing loth" with her "gay Lothario," the learned Judge thought proper to interrupt the trial, and recommended a verdict of acquittal.

Thus far the public are in possession of all the requisite information, and may naturally ask, For what has this Apology been written? The prevailing code of fashionable morals surely requires no apology for running away with a lady who yields not only her willing, but her eager consent, and who to prevent the "compunctious visitings of nature," throws away her protection, a small bag of camphor, which her philosophy had recommended in preference to the duties and doctrines of Christianity. For what then is this Apology, and to whom is it addressed? We must pass on to the very last page of the pamphlet, before any thing appears which can form an answer to this question. There the learned Judge (Lawrence) is reported to have said, that the acquittal of the Gordons "was no cause of triumph to them, as their *conduct* had been *disgraceful*." If we are not mistaken, therefore, the object of the pamphlet is to rub off "the disgraceful" part of their conduct, and to prevent their being ranked with a description of persons who were lately termed "acquitted felons;" but whether this object be atchieved is a point on which we are afraid we shall not have the honour to concur with the Gordons.

The work before us is intitled an *Apology*, a word on which we were at first inclined to make some remarks, and to inquire into the nature of some late *Apologies* presented to the public, but we gave up our intention on finding by page second of the Introduction, that an apology is not a *vindication*. "It is *not* my intention," says Mr. Loudoun Gordon, "to attempt a vindication of my own or my brother's conduct,"—what then? and why this long pamphlet?—"merely to assert, and I trust that I shall be enabled to prove to the public, that we have been the dupes of an artful and treacherous woman, who, in her turn, has been compelled to serve the interested and mercenary purposes of others." What Mrs. Lee, *in her turn*, has been compelled to do may be the subject of future inquiry, but unquestionably it is here proved that the brothers were most egregious dupes; yet as in such cases it generally happens that "there are faults on both sides," it is not quite so evident that they did not dupe themselves as much as they were duped by Mrs. Lee. The character they have given of that lady is such as no epithets, unless we were to seek them in the neighbourhood of St. Giles's, can do justice to. But there is such a thing in some modern *apologies* as proving *too much*, and we are afraid the writer of this pamphlet has fallen into the error. If Mrs. Lee be the abandoned and shameless character here represented, it appears astonishing that any man however young or inexperienced in the ways of the world, if possessed of common understanding, or any sense of decency or propriety, should for a moment have been duped by her; we mean so far as to form a connection such as was formed in this case, for as to her inclination to hang her lover after a few days cohabitation, that is, we must allow, a circumstance which no experience could have foreseen, and yet it is the only one in which he can honestly say he has been duped. Her conduct from the beginning was too gross for a man of any delicacy. In attempts to seduce female innocence, established practice prescribes that the seducer must preserve the semblance of virtue, and proceed by many a slow gradation before he discover or even hint at his ultimate purpose. When woman, however, seduces, if Mrs Lee be taken as a sample of the sex, she must, almost in the first interview or attempt, unfold her design without retaining the smallest disguise, and put on the manner of the lowest and most depraved of woman-kind. Such, at least, is the clear, and perhaps the only inference to be drawn from this narrative of the "Conversation of the Gordons with Mrs. Lee," for as to *vindication*, or even *alleviation*, in any other respect, we are afraid our readers, whose ideas of morality are tolerably correct, will be much at a loss to discover the smallest particle.

What *can* be said, indeed, in favour of Mr. Loudoun Gordon, ought not to be concealed, that he was sent abroad in the army at the age of sixteen, and remained abroad until the period of renewing his acquaintance with Mrs. Lee, who, when at his mother's school, had been the object of his boyish affection; that almost on his first interview with her, she gave him such hopes as gay young men in these days think it dishonourable not to cherish, and that she soon confirmed them by a declaration of love, &c. which exactly suited his taste and circumstances, and that with nine tenths of the gay world, this will appear a mere frolic, a trick of youth, &c. &c. All these circumstances he has stated, and might be welcome to the advantage derivable from them *in foro conscientiæ*, if he had not, unluckily for his "youth and ignorance," made use of such expressions as the following: "I leave the unprejudiced reader to define the motive which induced a *married woman*, who was in the most delicate of all situations in which a married woman can possibly be placed, &c. &c."—"I leave it to an impartial public to affix epithets to the name of a *married woman*, &c." This sense of Mrs. Lee's situation as a *married woman* would have been praise-worthy, and saved Mr. Gordon much exposure and mortification, had he felt it before, as well as when writing this pam-

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phlet. But what are we to think of his delicacy to the *married* woman, when we read the following passages?

"P. 54," Mrs. Lee asked Loudoun "what the world would say if an union between them was to take place?" Loudoun replied in the language of Pope—

"Love free as air at sight of human ties,
Spreads its light wings, and in a moment flies."

Mrs. Lee said, "So you really wish me to become your pretty little mistress?" Loudoun replied, "human ties forbid you to be any thing else at present than the *mistress of my soul.*"

P. 61. Mrs. Lee repeated several times during the evening, "What then you really wish me to become your little mistress?" the answer was invariably "the mistress of my soul, Mrs. Lee."—

Although this pamphlet professes to explain all that has hitherto appeared mysterious, we may yet ask, "Who's the Dupe?" and our scepticism will probably increase on reading the following letters to Mrs. Lee, of which, had they not been published by the writers, the authenticity might have been doubted, in compassion to "youth and ignorance." We have printed the *beauties* of each in *Italics.*

"*My dearest Madam,*

"If you assent to my proposition, I shall gain an inexhaustible source of felicity; *you will lose the pity of the ignorant and the prejudiced.* The protection that I have to offer you Madam, is the strength of body and mind, the courage and the life of a man not unused to danger. My age, Madam, has been matured by *adversity*, the only *school of true philosophy*; my situation, though it is not what I could wish, nor what my education and birth might have led me to expect, is rendered less irksome, by the possession and enjoyment of that inestimable treasure, *mens conscia recti*, which can neither be purchased nor stolen. I have consulted my heart, and would have plucked it out had it dared to think you *less than the most perfect of human beings.* I have consulted my reason in a low, but clear voice, it whispered praise. Pleasure, name it not my heart, for I have found no traces of you imprinted there. If the union of congenial *souls* can be rendered more complete by the union of their *bodies, obey Madam the first mandate of God and of nature,* or tremble at the thoughts of your disobedience. The world Madam is unworthy of you; the *false opinion* which it will probably form with regard to your conduct, will never be able to shake your constancy or fortitude. In obedience to your commands I have communicated your letter to *my brother*; he respects, he admires you, and he says, that he will protect you at the hazard of his life and fortunes. I can feel, though I cannot express what I am to you, more than that I am, My dearest Madam,

Your sincere and affectionate,
L. H. GORDON.

My Dear Madam,

I consent with all my heart to every *thought, word,* and *expression* contained in Loudoun's answer to your letter, which you did me the honour to desire him to communicate to me. If Loudoun deceives you Mrs. Lee, *I will certainly blow his brains out, and then we shall both be eternally damned as we shall most richly deserve.* Strong feelings burst the fetters of ceremony, and express themselves in the *untutored language of nature.* Mrs Lee will find in Lockhart Gordon a friend who has a head to conceive, a heart to feel, and a hand to execute whatever may conduce to Mrs. Lee's happiness.

I have the honour to be, &c.
L. GORDON.

As the whole of the narrative exhibits principles and conduct correspondent to these letters, it becomes unnecessary for us to make farther extracts from what public curiosity has probably by this time made familiar to most of our readers. The remarks we have offered may demonstrate how far the writer has succeeded as an Apologist, if in truth he meant to be an Apologist, or if, what to us appears far more probable, he wished to avail himself of an opportunity to write a tale which it will be fashionable to read. He professes indeed an inclination to vindicate the conduct of his *brother*, who being a *clergyman*, stands very much in need of his aid; but it is painful to reflect that there are understandings so extremely perverted as to suppose that a clergyman can be vindicated by exposing such conduct as is here attributed to Mr. Lockhart Gordon. No human being, although acquainted only with the outlines of morals or religion, can for a moment refuse his assent to the opinion of the learned judge, who witnessed only a moiety of the disgrace that attaches to the conduct of the three parties, and is here more amply exposed.

It may, perhaps, be thought that we have bestowed too much attention on a production whose real object must be the profit annexed to the gratification of vulgar curiosity. It may be interesting, however, in other respects. We do the author the justice to say, that it is written with candour and ingenuousness; he conceals no part of his transactions with Mrs. Lee, and indeed sometimes relates circumstances with a minuteness that decency could have excused. The whole, we fear, is too faithful a picture of the shattered morals which prevail in gay and fashionable life. The heroes and the heroine are not insulated beings, not such singular characters as the world never saw. They are the representatives of a very large class, whose principles and manners are subversive of social order and happiness, and are only not a disgrace to this nation because they are borrowed from another. We should ill discharge our duty to the public, if on such occasions as these, the critic did not assume the province of the moralist. With news-paper events and courts of law, it is seldom our wish to interfere, but when Apologies follow trials, and appeals are made through the medium of the *press*, it becomes us not to wave the common privilege of expressing our opinion, and detecting sophistry.

In Mrs. Lee's story, it has repeatedly been said, there is much mystery; and we may now add, that some part of that mystery yet remains to be unfolded. It appears to be established beyond all possibility of doubt, that she went off with the Gordons with her own consent; nay more, that she discovered every appearance of the most ardent affection for Loudoun, and, as asserted in this pamphlet, even sent encouraging messages to him when in prison. It remains to be known then, what change of affection, or opinion, induced her to procure their being tried for a capital crime? This is surely important, as far as any thing can be now important in this shameful affair; yet we have no farther light thrown upon it, than in two passages which occur in p. 2, where it is said that "she has been compelled to serve the interested

and mercenary purposes of others," and in p. 27, "her situation was dreadful in the extreme, there being no alternative left her, between the resignation of her fortune and reputation to the mercy of a husband she detests, or her endeavouring to convict me (Loudoun Gordon.") We know not to whom the former of these insinuations can attach; the latter, under all the circumstances of the case, is very like nonsense. Perhaps Mrs. Lee herself may advance next with an *Apology*, but the public will be shocked, if an *infidel*, which she professes to be, should happen to make a better one, than the *sound believers* who have passed in review before us.

R.

Lobenstein Village; a Novel. Translated by Mrs. Meeke, from the French of Augustus la Fontaine. 4 volumes. 12mo. 14s. Lane and Newman.

The abuse which the severe moralist has bestowed upon novels in general, has of late years been so often repeated by the critic, that this class of literature has fallen into disrepute. The modern novel, however, occupies a very considerable station in the field of literature; and some of our first writers have exerted their talents, laudably, in its composition. Whatever tends to sooth the mind when depressed, or to relieve attention, when wearied by intense application, deserves the gratitude of man. But the mob of writers yearly employed on this mode of composition, and the facility with which so many volumes of the most wretched trash are annually given to the public, have occasioned a strong prejudice against novels in general, which that species of composition, when undertaken by competent writers, is very far from deserving. To select from the crowd those deserving of attention, is an arduous task; and it is not to be wondered at, that some few deserving of a bettter fate are left wholly unnoticed.

The novel before us, however, possesses considerable merit, with frequent inequalities. The whole of the first volume deserves our praise with but little qualification. Mrs. *Meeke's* translation, though in general good, has been made with too much haste; which the reader will discover in a variety of instances.

Augustus la Fontaine lays the principal scene of this novel at a village in Germany, and chuses the orphan, Theodore, as his hero. The characters introduced are few and simple. The philosopher and scholar *Lindner*; his sister *Sabina*, who marries the eccentric *Baron de Senk*, whose whole attention is given to the construction of clocks; their son *Augustus de Senk*; *Theodore* the orphan, protected and educated by *Lindner*. In the same village, at the great manorial house, are the *Baron*, but principally the *Baroness de Rosbane*, her lovely daughter *Eloisa*; the son and heir *Emilius*; his tutor *Erast:* an interesting stranger, who purchases a small estate near Lindner, and calls himself *Schall*; and the bailiff of the village Gobel, an unprincipled miser, with an excellent daughter, Mary. These form the leading characters; and are all drawn with much originality, and well preserved. The benevolence of *Lindner*, and his blind attachment for the ancients, are well contrasted with the mechanic genius of *Senk*.

The second volume, after the first 40 pages, falls off considerably, as if an inferior author had taken up the pen: it however rises again towards the close of that volume; and the narrative then proceeds with a considerable increase of interest and humour. In the beginning of the second volume, (page 28) *Senk* forms an admirable counterpart to the eccentric *Darwin*, in his *Loves of the Plants:* after a classical discussion between *Lindner* and *Schall*, the following conversation succeeds:

"Senk, could however neither talk, nor think of any thing else; and the following day, when he saw *Schall*, he reverted to this said clock of flowers, enquiring whether there ever had been such a thing. "Undoubtedly," replied *Schall*, "for I have seen one." "Where, where? exclaimed the enraptured *Senk*. "At the Count de Buffon's, the famous French naturalist, and which keeps time to the greatest nicety;" entering into several details respecting this said uncommon time-piece, which induced *Senk* to hurry home to examine all the flowers his garden produced, when he found many which opened and shut at particular times; and as *Schall* had a great variety, he requested he would select any he thought would contribute to the completion of his time-piece. *Senk* was therefore busily employed for some time in transplanting and arranging his flowers, till he nearly brought his scheme to bear; though *Lindner* still gave the preference to his hour-glass, as it told him the time of day without going out in the sun or rain. "But have you then no relish for the beauties of Nature?" said *Senk*, "only come and see my collection. —There," having reached the bed allotted to his time-piece, "there, I knew we should be here to a second; these sweet flowers will never deceive us respecting the time. This one opens precisely at noon; the next no less punctually at one; and so on till evening, though I shall not be able to bring my clock to perfection this year, but next summer it shall rival the *Count de Buffon's*."

The same idea is afterwards pursued with equal humour at page 117:—"*Senk* had by this time nearly completed his botanical clock, of which he was more proud than of many much more ingenious performances; the idea was so novel, he conceived, and so little understood, though it by no means denoted the time of day so regularly as he could have wished. This afforded *Lindner* and *Sabina* an opportunity of rallying him, which, though meant, and done in jest, frequently hurt his feelings, which were particularly alive to the most harmless attack upon any of his favourite pursuits. Frequently, therefore, would he tell *Sabina*, that she ought to rejoice at his having so nearly succeeded in rendering even flowers of the greatest national utility; because if she wished to breakfast precisely at nine, she had only to examine the *Spiral Goat's beard*, which opened its leaves exactly at that hour. "That flower," he continued, "may be absolutely depended upon even to a second —indeed I now regulate all my clocks by it; and I have desired the clerk to consult it before he rings the bell for church. If I had but the trefoil-grass, which is a native of the South Sea Islands, and whose leaves have been remarked to wave precisely at twelve o'clock at noon, I should be quite set up. But do not fancy it is my partiality for every thing that bears any resemblance to clocks, that has rendered me so fond of flowers, as they are of the greatest utility in many other respects, besides denoting the time, which

you must allow is no small merit; but the *Jerusalem* rose, for example, will tell you immediately whether a room is damp, and of course is of considerable utility to travellers; and when your brother pores his eyes out over his Greek authors, I have only to say, *Lay by your books; such or such a plant, has closed its leaves, therefore evening approaches.*—Of course, you must agree, Sabina, that it is almost necessary to study botany, which daily affords the naturalist the most interesting discoveries." "If it does but encrease your pleasures, my dear *Senk*," interrupted *Sabina*, "I shall be perfectly happy; and the first wish of my heart will be gratified; and since you say the spiral *goat's-beard* is so much to be depended upon, I will never in future sit down to breakfast without first asking it the time of day."

We admire the pleasant satire which these passages contain against one of the leading *hobby horses* of the day, both on the continent and in our own country. Our botanical enthusiasts have of late encreased rapidly, and trifled most ingeniously and poetically: and we have often wondered that a subject pregnant with so much humour, and aptness, has not been heightened by the pen of a *Reynolds*, or the genius of Charlotte Smith; whose knowledge of botany would enable her to form an excellent romance on the leading follies of our botanists.

The third and fourth volumes are by no means inferior to the first; though we observe the same faults and errors in the language of the translator. The unexpected deliverance of *Mary Gobel* from the cottage in Silesia, by *Theodore*, and the adjoining wildness of the forest scenery, are well described. The history of the mother of *Theodore*, occupies the greater portion of the fourth volume, and seems to be the part to which our author has paid his greatest attention.—Yet some of the sentiments savour of the French school; and both *Julia* and *Eloisa de Rosbane*, often astonished us with principles that could only be approved in the circles of Paris. S. Q.

List of New Publications from April 2, to April 16, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, TRAVELS, &c.

The Annual Register; or, a View of the History, Politics and Literature for the Year 1802. 8vo. boards. (*) 10*s.* 6*d.*

The Scarborough Tour in 1803. By W. Hutton, F.A.S. 8vo. 6*s.*

The author himself seems to have thought that his tour was an absolute *nothing*, and yet expresses his desire to please! but he justly doubted of success, probably because in order to be pleased, people generally require *something* to be pleased with. However, though this composition is the merest skeleton that ever was dignifyed with the name of a *tour*, the author's manner of writing is simple and not unpleasing.

POLITICS AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

An Inquiry into the Nature and Origin of Wealth; and into the Means and Causes of its Increase. By the Earl of Lauderdale. (*) 8*s.*

The Correspondence of Mr. Drake. To which is prefixed the Report of the Chief Justice to the First Consul, with an Explanation of the fictitious names mentioned in the letters. 1*s.* 6*d.*

A Dive into Buonaparte's Councils on his Projected Invasion. By Thomas Martin, author of several Works on Natural History, the Soldier and Sailor's Friend, &c. 8vo. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Letter to Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. on the Folly, the Indecency, and the Dangerous tendency of his Public Conduct. By the Rev. Edward Hankin, M.A. royal 8vo. 2*s.*

This is a letter of reproof to Sir Francis Burdett on his public conduct, as displayed in his speeches on the Defence Bill, and at the Crown-and-Anchor Tavern. With regard to the former, though no friends to the public conduct of Sir Francis, we cannot help observing that it would have been more to the purpose had the author pointed out the fallacy of his assertions. With regard to the speech at the Crown-and-Anchor, it cannot be defended, and some just reflections upon it are here contained. The author having pointed out to Sir Francis that he ought *not* to have spoken as he did, sets down for him a long speech which, he observes, he ought to *have* spoken. This perhaps might have been very well spared, but then the pamphlet could not have sold for two shillings. However we would recommend to Sir Francis Burdett, and other legislators of a similar sort, when in want of speeches, to apply to our reverend author, as this specimen possesses the negative merit of being perfectly harmless.

Facts and Illustrations relative to Military Preparations carried on in France, in the interval between the Conclusion of the Treaty of Amiens, and the commencement of the Present War. From the French of Sir Francis D'Ivernois. 8vo. 3*s.*

The object of the present pamphlet is to prove that in the interval between the Treaty of Amiens and the commencement of the present war the First Consul of France was continually employed in making preparations for the renewal of hostilities. Several important facts are here disclosed relative to the conduct of the First Consul. The whole concludes with an enumeration of the provocations on the part of France, that occasioned the rupture between that country and Great Britain.

LAW.

A Treatise of the Pleas of the Crown. By Edward Hyde East, Vol. 1, 2. royal 8vo. 1*l.* 18*s.*

The Solicitor's Practice on the Crown Side of the Court of King's Bench; with an Appendix containing the Forms of Proceedings, &c. By William Hands, Solicitor. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

AGRICULTURE.

A General View of the Agriculture of Hertfordshire, drawn up for the consideration of the Board of Agriculture, and internal Improvement. By the Secretary of the Board. 8vo. (*) 6*s.*

An Inquiry into the Rot in Sheep and other Animals, in which a connection is pointed out between it and some obscure and important Disorders in the Human Constitution. By Edward Harrison, M.D. F.R.A.S. Ed. 2*s.*

This is a very ingenious, useful pamphlet; and we recommend it to general attention. The great utility of the sheep, and its liableness to disease, render a medical inquiry respecting it, by a man of real medical knowledge, peculiarly important. Dr. Harrison is of opinion that the gr

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cause of the rot in sheep, and of similar disorders in various other animals, is the exhalations of putrid water; and he has collected a variety of interesting facts in support of his opinion. He describes accurately the symptoms, and progress of the disease; and points out the means of preventing it. It is one of the things which is wanted to the improvement of agriculture, to have the economy of the animals concerned in it fully explored. And we shall be happy that more attempts of the nature of Dr. Harrison's may speedily come under our consideration.

POETRY.

The Lewes Library Society. By John Button, jun. 2*s.* 6*d.*

The subject of this poem is the foundation and progress of the Lewes Library. The description of our most celebrated authors is certainly no barren theme, and might from a youth of strong imagination have produced an amusing poem. But of such an imagination Mr. Button, with all due deference to his critical friends, possesses only a very small portion. With regard to the verse, the following lines, which are by no means *selected* for the purpose, will enable the reader to judge for himself:

> Above the door a board attracts the eye
> Inscribed "*The Library Society.*"
>
> Through fancy's glass he views the steep ascent,
> *Ambitious he to be the president.*

The author might at once have told his story in prose instead of employing a strange *hotch potch* which is neither prose nor verse, and continually offending the ears of every person, who, with a taste for poetry, is compelled to read his composition.

NOVELS.

Amazement, a Novel. By Mrs. Meeke. 3 vols. 12*s.*

We were indeed once a little amazed at several of our fashionable novels, but experience has taught us to be amazed at nothing. It was *amazing* how people could set down and write such *amazing* nonsense, and still more *amazing* that any body should read it. This is a tedious story spun out in a lagging feeble style to three volumes, and the singularity of the title only adds to the disappointment at the dulness of the story. It is perhaps but justice, however, to say that this is not the worst of the kind, and that if the authoress had confined the story to one third of its present size, it might have been *tolerably* interesting.

Talisman. 2 vols. 12mo. 7*s.*

This work contains the adventures of an English officer who had got possession of a talisman which had the supernatural property of calling up a spirit to answer any question that might be asked. The manners of the army are represented with considerable accuracy. The story upon the whole is interesting, and the moral, which consists in a representation of the bad effects that would result to man in his present state, from the possession of supernatural means of information, is striking and unobjectionable.

Something Odd, a Novel. 3 vols. 12*s.*

The title of this book, is to be sure *something odd*, as is generally the case with those books which have nothing else to recommend them. But the story is not odd, for unfortunately dulness accompanied by pertness and profanity is in these days, far from being strange. Yet this stupid composition contains some reflections against religion, and this is the only advantage which it possesses, for the folly of the story must leave an impression in favour of every thing against which its wretched efforts are directed. This piece of dulness might on this principle therefore be recommended as an antidote, were it not too well ascertained that the readers of novels are in general no less silly than the writers.

Jane Talbot, a Novel. By C. Browne, 2 vols. 8*s.*

This novel purports to have been written by the author of Arthur Mervyn and Edgar Huntley, but certainly this could scarcely have been collected from the perusal of the work itself. It is indeed something in his style and manner, but so very inferior in point of nervous language and vigour of imagination, that one can scarcely help suspecting that this is an awkward imitation by some other hand, and that he lent his name only. This author, we mean Mr. Browne, delights in pourtraying singular characters, but when these are well drawn and consistent with human nature, having the shades only strongly heightened, we generally read them with pleasure, and even with profit. The author appears to be friendly to the interests of religion and morality. But as to the present silly publication, we again assert that it can scarcely have been the work of the author whose name it bears.

A Tale without a Title; give it what you Please. By Eugenia de Acton, 3 vols. 12*s.*

This novel though possessing many of those qualities which distinguish the generality of works of this sort, such as improbable and unnatural incidents, contains some well drawn characters, and may comparatively be allowed a moderate degree of praise.

DRAMA.

The Sailor's Daughter, a Comedy. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Maids, a new After-piece. 1*s.*

Valentine and Orson, a Melo-drama. 1*s.*

MISCELLANIES.

An Authentic Account of the whole of the Correspondence, Conversations, and Elopement of Mrs. Lee with Mr. Loudoun Harcourt Gordon; with every relative circumstance, prefaced by a circumstantial Introduction. See page 483. 3*s.* 6*d.*

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Classic.—N° II.

Sanus homo, qui et bene valet, et suæ sponte est, nullis obligare se legibus debet. Celsus de Med. C. I.

Mr. Editor,

The insertion in your valuable publication of my undigested Essay on "The Classical Commentators" induces me to renew the subject, which perhaps little deserves your notice. Since, however, I may occasionally wish to forward several classical suggestions, unconnected with the name, and, I trust, with the fatuity of the commentators; I have ventured to appropriate to this, and succeeding papers, a name of high import, which however it may disgust the fastidious, shall never mortify the weak and unassuming.

The regular plan I had chalked out to myself in a former paper, would, I find, be tedious to the reader, and investigator. I shall therefore in this and an ensuing paper collect scattered hints relating to my subject, explain the different polemical and scientific opinions of the most learned annotators, attempt to expose their several errors, and to condense their most valuable materials in as short a space as possible. After this, and an account, and cursory review of Classical Translations in all languages, it is my inten-

tion to expatiate into the realms of ancient poetry, history, and philosophy, if ever

——— Fonte labra prolui caballino
Memini. *Pers. p. ad. Sat.*

and, if it meets your plan, may I add, that any communications left with you for "Crinitus" will be gratefully received, in aid of an undertaking, which (to use the words of Mr. Egerton, proem. ad Hippol.) "Ejusmodi opus ut susciperem, atque ad umbilicum pro virili ducerem, illud me vehementer incitabat, quod putavi fore, ut labor, quem in eam rem impenderem, studiosis hujusce ætatis adolescentibus, neque ingratus, neque omnino inutilis esse videretur."

I have quoted from a modern preface to a Greek play. In reading these prefaces I have frequently taken great delight, not from the elegance of thought, elucidation of future difficulties, or purity of diction, which they might be supposed to contain, but from the demonstration they make of the character of the commentator, whom we are about to accompany in his career.—From these prefaces we may not unfrequently compute the number of dinners which were to compensate a measured quota of notes. They have invariably owned the μεγα βιβλιον, to be μεγα κακον: they have gladly premised the final τω Θεω δοξα; and cited with exultation the well-known passage of τα βιβλια ημας τρεφει. Lest I should be misunderstood, or be thought to have dealt unfairly with the characters of the learned, it is incumbent upon me in my justification to refer to some of these querulous productions. Let my readers apply to the prefaces of our countryman Wakefield to be satisfied of the truth of this position: to the peevish cavils of Brunck: but above all would I recommend them to the complaints, and the languishing list of infirmities and disappointments collected by Heyne in his massive, petulant preface to Homer. The following quotation I fear will rather promote *the entertainment*, than excite *the compassion* of the reader. "Istam enimverò *dissertatiuncalam*, mente ratione non unâ minus validâ, oculo a senio caligante, a lemâ lippiente; manu tam a frigore (cum nec rigens ignem propinquiorem sustineam, &c.) quam a morbo tremulâ (cum ad manum amanuensis nullus existeret) non tam concinnabam, quam consarcinabam, conscribillabam magis, quam conscribebam"—and a quantity more of such stuff with which I will not occupy your page. [Vide Gatakeri Proem. in Marc. Anton. ed. Cant. 1652.]

But the prefaces of the ancients to their own works have individually a merit more than equal to the labours of their united expositors; which for the benefit of the Dutch bookseller were generally compiled from all editions, and formed the half of the *second* quarto volume. Purity, modesty, elegance awaited at the portico of the original writers, garrulity and impertinence debased not the sacred vestibule. The ponderous Drakenborck has nearly protruded Livy into his second volume: the Chevalier Folard has hardly deigned to inform us where we shall find Polybius; the president Des Brosses gives us as many hundred pages in preface to *his* Sallust, as Sallust has given sections to his own works. Claudian is seldom read for his simplicity; but if he ever shews such a virtue, it is in his beautiful prefaces to his longer poems.

The "Testimonia Veterum" at the beginning, and the newly-invented "Excursus's" at the end of editions of the Classics, are powerful coadjutors to the *size* of an author; who, if he happens to be a Grecian, may be farther befriended by Scholia, and a concluding Lexicon of all the words he uses, with occasional notices how they are used by others, a list of their synonimes, and (if he is in great luck) a list of the words which occur in the notes. To these may be added a list "Auctorum castigatorum vel recensitorum, qui *obiter* perstringuntur," comprising a catalogue of authors and commentators from Sanchoniatho to Erasmus.

If the patience of the gentle reader be not tired, I will lead him through these different "*Gradus ad Parnassum:*" and let him consider that the *ennui* he suffers from my enumerations, will be compensated to him, especially if he be a student, in the scope they afford of avoiding much extraneous matter, and discovering in a ponderous mass of five thousand pages, the fifty, occupied by the author he is seeking. In the immense folios of Salmasius, did any lucky thumb ever encounter Solinus? Should professor Heyne's Homer ever become disjointed, and sold in odd volumes at a Leipsic stall, in vain will the purchaser offer his three volumes of "Observationes" for the corresponding Tome of the "Ilias."

Fastidious critics consider the "Testimonia Veterum" as very misnomered compilations, since they include the well-digested ideas of Hodius, Lipsius, Scaliger, Vossius, "cum multis aliis." Yet surely this is *too* correct and hypercritical. Did these gentlemen Latinize their names for nothing? did Scaliger purchase the "agnomen" and "prænomen" of "Julius Cæsar," merely to find *his patent* disregarded? We all remember how generously he has declared, that he would rather have written a certain ode in Horace, than succeed to a principality in Spain—and should not such a person be classed a cotemporary with Pætus or Helvidius? De-Paw (whose editions were by the bye stigmatized by the vile joke of "*paw, paw*," by undiscerning readers) has declared, in his preface to Phrynichus, that he understands Attic Greek better than his author.—Should he not therefore take place of him, and be allowed to insert his Testimonium on Æschylus with that of Cicero? Vossius writ half as many folios as St. Chrysostom, and must be allowed at least the epithet of "old-fashioned" I will take the printed names of the few first commentators on Minucius Felix (ed. Var. Lug. Bat. 1672) and ask the impartial reader whether he will not allow them to sound with all the grandeur attached to the "*egregiè cordati homines*" of old—Wowerus! Elmenhorstius! Rigaltius! Ouzelius! Heraldus!

Much as I admire the "Testimonia Veterum," I have another plan to offer, which I think would afford as much entertainment as, and far more insight into the character of the author, than I can conceive that to contain. Indeed, (for I should not wish to deprive the editor of his rights) I trust it would make a tolerable supplement to the Testimonies above-mentioned;

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and the modesty of the writer in subjoining his own opinion to that of his friends would appear blameless and innocent.—I mean the introduction of egotism under the title of "*Sui Testimonia.*" Let an author's works be diligently scrutinized by the index, and every passage collected wherein he talks of himself, thus, in fact, should we have a better life of each writer, than the jejune biographies of Plutarch or Suetonius can supply. By these means such egotists as Herodotus or Ovid would have the operation of *the primer* to their works twice in the same edition.

I have intitled "the Excursus's" *newly-invented*, and they are so, inasmuch as their *name* is concerned. Their *matter* was formerly comprised in long notes, which excluded the text from six or seven pages together: (vide edd. Burmann.) or in long final treatises (vide Jac. Palmerium ad Lucan.) or in references to some other author, edited by the same person, *thus* "vide quæ notavimus ad" &c. or "ad," so, and so, (vide passim Xen. Hutch.—Brunck, *Semper*) which is I conceive the most unfair chicanery of commentators. Incautious is the student who encounters the ignorance and false quantities of Schütz and Ruperti in their respective editions of Æschylus and Juvenal: but I seriously recommend to all who, with me, love the genuine and unadulterated sense and flow of the Classics, when supported by real strength and genius in an annotator, to read the Excursus of Heynè to the Νεκυια in the sixth book of Virgil.—I have before said that these comments are the works of his pupils; but I have no doubt but that *his* superintendance collected and arranged the very excellent and apposite quotations with which that treatise abounds.

The "Scholia" were chiefly written by those Greeks who found an asylum from the barbarous conquerors of Constantinople in the literary Court of Leo X. The names of Tzetzes, Ficinus, Politian, and Lascaris are endeared to us by Roscoe's enchanting history of Lorenzo de' Medici. These were truly revered sages, "*of whom*" I can conscientiously say with Tasso,

> Udra' l' mondo presente, udrà 'l futuro,
> Gli odono hor sù nel Cielo anco i celesti.

It is a fact little known that the old scholiast on Aristophanes is equal himself to any classic.—More information on Grecian customs is to be derived from him, than from any other Grecian writer, with the exception of Athenæus, whose mutilated centos are by no means satisfactory. Bishop Potter's Archæologia pays a tribute to him in every page. Some students may have conceived a disgust for the Scholia of Thucydides, by a perusal of Stevens's apparatus.—I confess, the old man is ridiculous in his long-winded explanations of πνυ, &c. (vide Thu. fol. Hudson) but the commentary on the whole is sensible and usefully explanatory. The parallel passages introduced by the Scholia from authors no longer remaining, form also a chief merit in them.

Timæus has written a Lexicon on Plato; there are Claves of Homer, the New Testament, &c.—Damm has a large quarto on the "voces Pindaro et Homero usitatæ" (pp. 3037 besides an Index Universalis.) Vigerus, edited by Zeune, boasts V Indices—and now every author is duly supplied in the last volume with his proportionate Lexicon. We cannot say with Horace, if our friends be purchasers,

> "Spectatum admissi, risum teneatis, Amici?"

I have much more to say on these topics in a future number. At present I shall conclude with a promise to recur to this very subject shortly—and to give my humble opinion on "Epistolæ Dedicatoriæ, et Criticæ," "Sylvæ," "Diatribes," "Versus Commendatorii," and the pretty vignettes and tail-pieces with which Heynè adorns all his publications.

Allow me to add the last literary words of Brunck; *that* "vegetus jucundissimusque senex," which are recorded by Schweighæuser (Præf. Athen. 8vo. cxiv.) as having been tenderly said to him, when he relinquished classical learning, or in other words when he turned a bankrupt commentator and sold his library, hoping that the tear of Genius will fall over the concluding sentence, "Si se amem, nullo porro verbo vel de Athenæo, vel de Græcis omnino literis proferam; quibus, suis olim deliciis, prorsus valedicere sibi decretum esse." CRINITUS.

Shakspeare's Hamlet—Reply to Anti-Fluellen.

Mr. EDITOR,

As the gentleman who signs himself Anti-Fluellen, seems displeased with my ironical attack on the Hypothesis of Mr. Plumptre, relative to the tragedy of Hamlet, I will without any attempt at "jests and gybes and knavery and mocks," give my serious opinion of this Hypothesis and all other Hypotheses of the same kind. Shakspeare is the poet of nature, and all his characters are faithful transcripts from that original. They are copied from archetypes which are before our eyes every day; but it is degrading him to an equality with the buffoons of Athens and of England,—Aristophanes and Foot, to look for *this* and *that* actual character in his works, and to consider him as a mimic of individual persons and actions, instead of an imitator of general actions and manners. In saying this I mean no reflection on the genius and judgment of Mr. P.: the *ignis fatuus* of a favourite Hypothesis, especially with regard to our great poet, has deluded those "who are grown grey in the labours of commenting" as well as "a novice in the gardea of criticism;" and no young critic need be ashamed of being led astray by it, who will see the monstrous absurdities which it has produced even in such critics as Bishop Warburton or Dr. Johnson.

When a person either actually in love with an Hypothesis, and shutting his eyes to all that makes against it, or the ironical writer who does the same for the sake of humour, like the author of the Key to the Lock, is determined to support a paradox, and for that purpose will select every passage that can be twisted to any semblance of supporting it, and will omit every thing that can possibly contradict it, he certainly will confirm the truth of the celebrated lemma: "Quodlibet fieri potest ex quolibet." There never was an Hypothesis more speciously maintained than that of Warburton, to prove that the sixth Æneid is a description of the Eleusinian mysteries, but it dissolved into air at the Ithuriel touch of the pen of Gibbon.

That Shakspeare alluded to contemporary events in

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his plays is certain: of this the compliment to Queen Elizabeth in the Midsummer's Night's Dream is an instance; but we would not for that reason wish to prove, that in that play as in the allegorical poem of Spencer, the virtues of that princess were shadowed under the type of the Fairy Queen, though an ingenious irony or a sanguine hypothesis might perhaps find all the characters of her court in that drama or in any other. I am, Sir, Your's, &c.

E.

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° VII.

Sunt quibus in satyra videar nimis acer, & ultra
Legem tendere opus: sine nervis altera, quicquid
Composui, pars esse putat. HORACE.

Some call me dull, some think me over-witty;
That all cannot be pleased at once, 'tis pity!

WHEN I began to give these memoirs of my life to the public, I unfortunately overlooked one very serious consideration. I indeed formed to myself some idea of the method I was to pursue, and then sat down to express my thoughts in the language that most readily occurred to me: but I forgot to consult the many ingenious critics of this great town on the subject, and made no calculation of the numberless pieces of good advice I should speedily receive by the two-penny post. This oversight has been attended with the most unhappy consequences. I now find that I have not said one thing as I ought to have done; and my plan and my manner are equally blamed, for different reasons indeed, by all my correspondents. This is certainly very mortifying; yet I must do my critics the justice to say, that they have been extremely liberal; for while they blame, they all point me out a method by which I may amend my errors, and render my memoirs universally acceptable. Some difficulty, however, still occurs, for my correspondents, although all exceedingly wise, differ so very considerably in their ideas of what is to be done, that I am more puzzled how to write my life, than ever I was how to spend it. As some other dexterous correspondent will however probably be found, to point me out the best way of escaping from this embarrassment, I shall here present my readers with a few of the ingenious plans which have been proposed for my improvement.

The Nabob.

"SIR,

I perceive you have begun to attack private characters. I knew from the first you would degenerate into such low arts. If you intend to paint the manners of the age, give us general descriptions of them; do not run through the character of this man and that man, but tell us in general terms what is done by the whole. I know there are people, entirely unacquainted with the philosophical mode of viewing things, who are wonderfully fond of your plan of drawing characters, and who indeed are not satisfied unless every description of manners be personified. But this is a very false taste; and although it might have done very well at the commencement of the last century, it is quite repugnant to the philosophic style of the present age. People are now capable of considering things abstractedly; and late writers, accordingly, instead of presenting them with the shreds of particular characters, have instructed them by general delineations of the essence of manners. So far indeed has this improvement been carried, that there is scarcely a description of our late mannerists, which can possibly be affixed to any particular character. Our writers of biography have judiciously adopted the same refinement; and instead of adhering simply to the memoirs of the person whose name stands at the top of their work, and allowing people to judge from thence of the manners of the age in which he lived; they give you general descriptions of the transactions and modes of his time, and then leave it to yourself to imagine what conformation they must have given to the individual.

With so many examples of refinement before you, I am astonished you can persist in the obsolete and exploded method of catching at particular characters, instead of forming an abstracted and philosophic picture of the whole. There is, for instance, your *Memoir of the Old peer Capricorn*; no one can mistake the allusion; the same individual character runs through the whole of the paper; and this you call delineating the manners of the age! How much more like a philosopher would it have been to have painted, in glowing colours, the prevalence of gaming, horse-racing, seduction, and all sorts of debauchery among our nobility, and then to have allowed your readers to imagine to themselves, if they chose, that such a character as the Old Peer exists.

But I know my advice is thrown away upon you. A silly desire of being thought humorous by the multitude, makes you quite incapable of philosophizing on manners with dignity. We shall soon have nothing from you but mere personal anecdotes. I should not wonder to find the *Old Peer* brought upon the carpet again: we may then expect to hear of baths of warm milk in a morning, of new-laid eggs and cutlets *à la maintenon*, with all the arts which a man-cook can employ eight or nine times a-day to keep a piece of battered clay from mouldering into dust. You may persist, if you please, to catch the vulgar by such frivolities; but depend upon it, you will never be read, unless for the sake of contrasting your meanness with the dignity of philosophy, by

PLATO MEIZON."

The Nabob.

"SIR,

"I have for this year past taken in the Literary Journal for the use of the young ladies, but I must positively give it up unless you alter your manner of writing. I have the person in my eye who was officious enough to describe to you the method pursued in my school, and I shall certainly be more careful what visitors I receive for the future. Your attack on boarding-schools I look upon as a direct affront to myself. All the young ladies saw through it at once; and Mr. Fiddlepino, the music-master, who is a most excellent teacher and my very best friend, on reading

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what you said of him, flew into such a violent rage, that he almost demolished the keys of my new pianoforte. Our drawing-master, who is also a most pleasant man, was in my opinion used still worse. It was really pitiful in you to allude to his customers in Bucklersbury and Rosemary-lane; for it is well-known he attends many genteel families at the west end of the town. My scholars have always been remarkable for their proficiency in music and drawing. Mr. Fiddlepino is indeed so uncommonly successful, that he has lately taught Miss Blouzy, who could not distinguish a sharp from a flat, to make a very tolerable figure in a sonata. Now, Mr. Nabob, I must insist that you will not attempt to hurt my school by ridiculing those accomplishments, which are taught there with such peculiar success. Some of your last papers indeed pleased us all wonderfully; and if you continue to keep off one's private concerns, I have no fault to find. But as in your last Number you threw out some hints of a new attack on the ladies, I thought it would be proper to give you this caution.

Miranda-House, ARABELLA C———."
April 25.

The following letter is from a gentleman, who, I am assured, keeps very fashionable company, and knows a great deal of what is passing at the west end of the town.

"*Mr. Nabob,*

"Several of my friends as well as myself were led to expect something from your name; and indeed your promises made us look to hear from you a little of what is passing in the world. But your papers turn out to be the most insipid things I ever read. To hear the topics which you select, one would wonder what corner of the town you hide yourself in: one thing I am certain of, that you have not walked in Bond-street or Kensington-Gardens since your last annual tour on the Sunday after the birth-day. Pray, Sir, who do you imagine is at all concerned about the quackeries of authors, the accomplishments of boarding-school misses, or the fustian of the players? If you ever desire to be read by any person beyond the rank of a Mrs. Fig in the Minories, you must find out different subjects. If you follow my advice, I should not mind snatching half an hour occasionally from my constant friends Lord B. and the Honble. Mr. Teddy, to send you half a page of something fashionable; it would give you a run at once, and make you be talked of every where. Now, Sir, let me assure you that your common-place topics are insufferably dull and insipid. You must hit upon things which are talked of and interest the world. Why, you don't appear to have any perception of what makes a noise in the gay circles, even after it has been bandied about a whole month in the Morning-Post. Have you heard of the Duchess of ——r——'s curious affair with the husband of a friend? If you could get hold of the circumstances it might be made to amuse all the world for the next two months. You might find occasion to introduce as many double-entendres as you pleased; and nothing goes down without double-entendres. You might also occasionally slip in a sly bit of b——y: you cannot think how it would be relished by the ladies. I know they talk loudly against such a thing; but then they all read it. In company they are obliged to look grave, and not to understand, when the colouring is a little too rich; but when they have no other witnesses to their behaviour but the book itself, such things are a perfect luxury to them. Depend upon it if you hit off a little dexterously in this way, your papers will soon be found in every lady's dressing-room in town. As I love to encourage a writer of spirit, if you resolve to be entertaining, I can furnish you with abundance of topics. I have by me a list of some dozen women of fashion, who have got their shapes spoiled by the men milliners employed to adjust them. You must only publish the first letters of their names with a dash: it will set all the world a guessing, for nothing is so attractive as a dash, especially if you vary it occasionally with a few asterisks. I can inform you who it is that supplies all our first-rate belles with breeches; nay, I believe I can procure you a peep into his ledger, and then you will have the whole secret. He vows he has equipped a noted sporting countess to such perfection, that if she is thrown in leaping a hedge, and her heels go uppermost, it will be impossible for some time to distinguish her from her groom. If you will take up these things with spirit, and give them a little relishing as I directed, we shall enjoy you over our wine, and have a hearty laugh at the liquorish feelings of the dowagers who are as busy with you in the next room.—But I am interrupted by my friend captain Tom Tit, the noted author and actor of Tottenham-court road. You know he is a wit; I have just mentioned to him my plan for you, and he enters into it at once. He promises his assistance in making out a dashing paper for you; provided you do not again bore us with your Inns-of-court humour, and your boarding-school morality. Captain Tit and I, you must know, keep none but the most fashionable company, and cannot endure any thing that might suit the meridian of Cheapside. Yours,

DAPPLE DASH.

This letter, which announced itself the production of a man of spirit and fashion, of course set all my thoughts to work. To be talked of by Lord B—— and the Hon. Mr. Teddy, and Capt. Tom Tit, over their wine, was a most flattering consideration; but to be admitted into the dressing-room of every woman of fashion in town, and to form the enjoyment of her most private moments, was a temptation not to be resisted. I had begun to look over my memorandums for a proper subject to amuse the leisure hours of the fair sex, and meditated a sally to the Prince of Wales's coffee-house to catch a few hints that might give a zest to the entertainment, when I received the following note:

"*The Nabob.*

"SIR,

"I think it my duty to return you thanks for a very great reformation which has, within these two last months, taken place in my family. My wife, whose memory I shall regret to the last hour of my life, left me several years ago a widower with two

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girls. I was anxious to have them instructed in every fashionable accomplishment of the age; and it was with pride I heard from their governess and masters, that their proficiency was unexampled. The different bent of their genius soon began to appear; my eldest girl was discovered to have a *passion* for music, and her younger sister an equal *passion* for drawing. As their superiority in these accomplishments were universally admired, I for some time was eager to encourage them in their favourite pursuits, and procured them every means of improving their taste. It was not long, however, before I began to feel uneasy that so very much time was devoted to the pencil and the piano-forte. Harriet was now scarcely visible even at meal times; I have known her shut up in her painting closet, almost without intermission, to finish a piece in oil-colours, which she knew would be received with a profusion of flattery, by a party of our friends who were to be invited for the purpose. Lucy was no less assiduous at her piano-forte. When a new popular piece came out, she was up early and late, till she had made herself perfect in it; and it was her delight to astonish her hearers by pieces of such difficult execution, that they could only wonder how the changes were brought about on the instrument, without at all comprehending any thing of the composition. Although I am quite enraptured with the melody of sounds, I have no taste for music that derives its beauties from the difficulty of execution. Lucy's performances, therefore, soon became insupportably tiresome to me; I could not endure to have my ears perpetually assailed by a jingle which I could not comprehend.

This conduct of my daughters began to make me fret very much inwardly. I loved my girls and enjoyed their conversation; for they are really well-informed. I also wished them to pay due attention to the economy of a family, and to acquire a proper relish for domestic society; in order that they might one day be as great a blessing to their husbands, as their mother had been to me. I was vexed that these prospects should be sacrificed to daubing in oil colours and thrumming on the keys of a harpsichord, a little more skilfully than their neighbours; and yet I wanted resolution to begin a serious admonition against pursuits which I had myself so much encouraged.

One morning when Lucy announced the arrival of the Literary Journal, I enquired as usual what the Nabob was about? She replied, "it was a very sensible paper, but it was scarcely justifiable to attack private characters; she could not see why her sister and she might not amuse themselves with their music and drawing, without being held up to public ridicule." I was delighted to find that your ideas on female accomplishments entirely coincided with my own; and I seized with eagerness this opportunity of pointing out to my girls the folly of private gentlewomen becoming *amateurs*. I did not discourage the idea of your having had them in your eye when you wrote the paper; and this gave double effect to my admonitions.

Next morning Lucy and Harriet appeared in their hats and pelices, ready to attend me in my daily excursion to the park; and I was in the evening no less agreeably surprized to find a small conversation party provided. My household has since gradually begun to wear a more active appearance; and although my girls have executed fewer drawings, and made less progress in the music of the new operas, than formerly, yet they have of late been found much more agreeable by every company.

It is in this manner, Mr. Nabob, that you may at once paint the manners of the age and contribute to improve them. When you describe a general vice or folly under a particular character, you will be blamed by twenty individuals whom you never thought of, for hitting at *them*; but this is the strongest testimony to the truth of your pictures. I observe, indeed, that you sometimes seize and hold up to ridicule a noted character, which, from the station it holds in society, must influence the conduct of a multitude. This is attacking vice at once in its strong hold; as it makes the crowd of imitators ashamed of the very example by which they were to excuse their debaucheries to themselves and the world.

There is one particular which you have hitherto observed, and which I trust you will never lose sight of; to beware, in holding up vice to ridicule, never to expose it in such a manner as must shock every innocent beholder. There are some men who pretend to be satyrists and the scourges of immorality, and yet make use of such terms, that they seem to rail at scenes of debauchery merely for the sake of gloating over them. But it is not only unworthy of a moralist but of a man, to catch attention by exciting such ideas as cannot enter into the innocent mind without polluting it. May the writings of such authors be ever confined to those whom they are designed to entertain; worn-out rakes, and women who have already the feelings of a strumpet. Your speculations, Mr. Nabob, I trust I shall always be able to read aloud to my daughters without a pause; and talk over among their young and sprightly friends at our evening conversations. Your obliged humble Servant,

ALURED HOMETON.

Wimpole-street.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

On the Prerogative of the King to call out under arms all the Inhabitants of the Kingdom, in case of Invasion.

"THERE cannot," says Blackstone, "be a stronger proof of that genuine freedom which is the boast of this age and country, than the power of discussing and examining, with decency and respect, the limits of the King's prerogative; a topic that, in former ages, was thought too delicate and sacred to be profaned by the pen of a subject. It was ranked among the *Arcana imperii*; and, like the mysteries of the *bona dea*, was not suffered to be pried into by any but such as were initiated in her service: Because, perhaps, the exertion of the one, like the solemnities of the other, would not bear the inspection of a rational and sober inquiry. The glorious queen Elizabeth herself made no scruple to direct her parlia-

ments to abstain from discoursing of matters of state; and it was the constant maxim of this favourite princess and her ministers, that even that August Assembly *ought not to deal, to judge, or meddle with her Majesties Prerogative Royal.* And her successor, King James the First, who had imbibed high notions of the divinity of regal sway, more than once laid it down in his speeches, that, *as it is atheism and blasphemy to dispute what the deity may do, so it is presumption and sedition in a subject to dispute what a king may do in the height of his power: good christians, he adds, will be content with God's will revealed in his word; and good subjects will rest in the King's will, revealed in his law.*"

In the preamble to an act, passed in the last session of parliament, for providing more effectually for the defence of the realm, it is assumed as a prerogative of the King, to call out in, case of invasion, all the inhabitants of the kingdom capable of bearing arms. As the preambles to bills nowise affect the enactments about to be made, they are in general very little attended to; while the clauses, containing the new propositions, undergo a rigid scrutiny. Such appears to have been the case with the bill to which we now allude. With regard indeed to that bill there was much greater than ordinary reason for such an accident; it was passed at a period when the utmost dispatch appeared to be necessary; and in their eagerness to obtain the advantages of the law, it is not to be wondered at that the lawgivers overlooked, in a great measure, the preamble. That the assertion in that preamble, however, is something more than doubtful, is sufficiently proved by the fact, that two of the most eminent members of parliament, Lord Grenville in the one house, and Mr. Fox in the other, have declared their express opinion that it is incorrect. Lord Grenville accordingly has given notice of a motion for leave to bring in a bill to define and regulate the degree of this species of power necessary to be invested in the executive government; and Mr. Fox pronounced the idea expressed in the preamble so absurd, that it was matter of wonder to him how the bill with that affixed to it, was allowed to pass.

We recollect being surprized at the assertion, when it was first published. We considered it as founded on mistaken notions of our history; as inconsistent with the spirit of our present laws; as presenting a scheme which could not be acted upon in the present state of things; but which, by its partial application, might be made an instrument of great abuse and disorder. We will now present to our readers some of our reasons for entertaining these opinions.

We know nothing from which this assumed prerogative of the king can be deduced but the institutions of the feudal times. By these it was in the power of the King to call upon his vassals to attend him in war. No other occasion does our history present, on which the King could call forth any part of his subjects, except by their own consent, or by the express authority of parliament. It will be difficult to produce an instance of any of those liberties being taken in this respect with the freedom of the people, which were taken in so many other respects, of the utmost importance, during the times when men's ideas were yet coarse. But if it were not, and if many instances could be produced; violations of right are no precedents, unless the power of seizing and putting people to death, and of taking their money at the pleasure of the court, may be quoted as prerogatives of the crown.

If this prerogative be deduced from the institutions and practices of feudal times, nothing can discover greater ignorance and want of reflection. These institutions and practices formed a very unhappy scheme of policy, even at the time when the rude state of society and of knowledge suggested them. And nothing can be more absurd than to draw any rule from that system to the conduct of modern affairs; when our knowledge is so much improved, and when circumstances are so entirely altered. The situation of the people in Great Britain is not more different, at this moment, from that of the people in China, than it is from that of the people in Great Britain in the feudal times. He would be an odd politician who should talk of drawing a rule, from a power possessed by the Emperor of China, to bind the people of Great Britain; or who could suppose that a system of policy which suits the people of Great Britain, and ensures their prosperity and happiness, would suit the inhabitants of China, or be productive of any thing but disorder and misery.

We have, it is true, several institutions and modes of procedure in various cases, derived from the forms of feudal policy, and continued without interruption from the feudal times. It makes a difference that these institutions have been uninterrupted, because they have had the effect of moulding the forms of modern business to their own shape; whereas in cases where that business has been left to itself, very different forms have been produced. There is much less reason then for altering an uninterrupted mode of procedure, than for resisting the introduction of an old mode, which has been long discontinued. The effect of the mode which has been continued has probably been bad; and has prevented the business of latter times from assuming that form which was best adapted to the altered situation of affairs. But the introduction of the mode which has long been dropped, must be altogether violent, and doubly injurious. In by far the greater number of cases all regard to feudal forms and ideas has been abandoned, and matters have been allowed to take the course into which their own nature impelled them. And even in those circumstances where the influence of custom has made feudal regulations be retained, their spirit and operation is completely altered.

But grant that all these important considerations were overlooked, and that it were resolved to act upon the supposed prerogative; the attempt would be found in practice to be utterly absurd, and tending only to cover the undertakers with shame and confusion. Provided the population were called out by this authority; how is it to be maintained? The military servants of the feudal times, who attended the summons of the King, not only served without pay, but found their own maintenance. It is indeed as much a part of the prerogative of the King to command the people to serve without pay, and to find their own

maintenance now, as it is to call them out, according to the feudal system. It would be *necessary* likewise to command them to do so; and to take one part of the system as well as the other. Because, if the whole population were called out, it would not be an easy matter for the first lord of the Treasury to find pay and maintenance for them. But we believe it would not sound very agreeably to the ears of the people of this country at this time, to publish to them that the King had a right upon any pretence of invasion, however ridiculous, to compel them to become soldiers, to become soldiers without pay, and while serving without pay to find their own maintenance.

But there is one circumstance, attending this ancient prerogative, which, even should we suppose it possessed at present in full perfection by the crown, would render its operation very little useful to the persons who would have recourse to it. The ancient military servants of the crown were only bound to forty days attendance in the year; and after that period were at liberty to disperse, unless their officers found means to persuade them to remain longer. In modern warfare, 40 days service would in general be of very little advantage.

Although the feudal people, however, served without pay, they did not serve without reward. They had what was equivalent to pay. They had what could not be given to the people at present in lieu of their services; and therefore these services cannot by the feudal laws be exacted of the people. You cannot by those laws demand of them the services, when you cannot give the equivalent which these laws prescribe. You must not enforce one part of the law, when the corresponding part is incapable of being enforced. According to the feudal law, the whole land in the kingdom was supposed to belong to the king. This he divided in portions among the great men of the nation; and the condition on which they received their shares was to attend the king in his wars. This was their pay; and thus in reality they were engaged, enlisted soldiers; and would have been guilty of the crime of desertion, had they failed to attend the summons of the King, their lawful commander, and paymaster. In like manner, as the King distributed the land of the kingdom to the great men for their military services, these great men distributed their estates to inferior men or tenants, for the military services of these tenants under themselves. These services were in fact the rent paid by the tenants for that part of the great man's estate which they were allowed to cultivate for their own use. They too, in this manner, were hired soldiers. When the King accordingly took the field, either from necessity or folly, he had it always in his power to call upon all the landed proprietors in the kingdom to join him, with a certain number of followers, according to the nature of their tenures; and all these persons attended without expecting pay or maintenance, because they knew they had received their reward in a different manner. But although the land proprietors of the kingdom at present hold their estates in fact by a military tenure; that is, though the charters and deeds of conveyance are in the terms by which estates were granted and conveyed in feudal times; no land proprietor now conceives himself bound for military service; and this is one of the unhappy cases in which feudal forms have been allowed to remain, when the spirit and intent of them has by necessity been disregarded; nay, by statute set aside. But granting that it might be said that the proprietors of estates, possessing their estates by these antiquated forms, might without impropriety be called upon for their services; this is not the case with their tenants. They hold not their leases by a military tenure. They receive not their farms free of rent, on condition of attending the lord of the manor as soldiers or vassals. They pay the full value of the annual produce of the land; and are under no other obligation whatever to their landlords. According to the feudal laws therefore, the prerogative would not enable the King to call forth any to act under him as soldiers, but the proprietors of land. Now we doubt whether any ministry would propose to make an army of them.

Not only, however, are the feudal laws, respecting the means of defence, perfectly incapable of being put in execution, in the present times; but even the feudal laws themselves are in direct opposition to the claim set up for the prerogative of calling out the whole population. The number of persons required by the feudal tenures was by no means unlimited. A certain number of persons was the fixed quota for a certain extent of land, and no greater number of persons could be called out by authority. Neither was this number very great. "All the lands in the kingdom," says Blackstone, "were divided into what was called knight's fees, in number above sixty thousand; and for every knight's fee, a knight or soldier, *miles*, was bound to attend the King in his wars, for forty days in a year. By this means the King had, without any expence, an army of sixty thousand men always ready at his command." But sixty thousand men is only a small proportion of those to whom the operation of the prerogative, now talked of, extends. By the feudal laws, however, though in perfect exercise, no more could be forced out.

If it be thus clear that the power of calling out all the inhabitants capable of bearing arms, by virtue of the prerogative, is not founded on the feudal laws, we think it will be equally clear from a deduction of all the regulations which have been successively introduced respecting military affairs in this country, that it is not founded on any subsequent law.

The military part of the feudal system quickly fell into decay; and so early as the time of Henry the Second, personal service was dispensed with for pecuniary commutations. In order however to prevent the kingdom from being thrown into a defenceless state by this renunciation, among the people, of military duties, a new regulation was instituted. "First," says Blackstone, "the Assize of arms, enacted 27 Hen. II. and afterwards the statute of Winchester, under Edward I. obliged every man, according to his estate and degree, to provide a determinate quantity of such arms as were then in use, in order to keep the peace; and constables were appointed in all hundreds, by the latter statute, to see that such arms were provided." But these statutes refer merely to the providing of arms, and confer no new power upon the King

of demanding the personal services of the people. The people even then could be called upon service only by their military tenures, by their own consent, or by the authority of parliament. Accordingly when the instruments of warfare came to be changed, these statutes were altered by 4 & 5 Ph. & M. c. 2. and modern weapons appointed; but no other provisions were understood to be contained in them. "While these statutes continued in force," says Blackstone, "it was usual from time to time for our princes to issue commissions of array, and send into every county officers in whom they could confide, to muster and array (or set in military order) the inhabitants of every district." But this appears not to have been any assumption of a power to call upon the military services of the people. It appears to have been entirely a business of inspection; to see that the above statutes which referred only to the arming of the people, were duly complied with. It appears abundantly evident that the prerogative of calling out the people in case of invasion was not the foundation of the commissions of array, from this circumstance, that they were often appointed in time of profound peace; in fact just as the King thought it convenient or necessary. The commissions of array, therefore, have nothing to do with this supposed prerogative. "The form of the commission of array," says Blackstone, "was settled in parliament in the 5 Hen. IV. so as to prevent the insertion therein of any new penal clause." It appears to us sufficient evidence that this was not considered a matter of prerogative, which kings at that time guarded with so much jealousy; when parliament was allowed to assume the controul of it. "But," continues Blackstone," it was also provided that no man should be compelled to go out of the kingdom at any rate, nor out of his shire but in cases of urgent necessity; *nor should provide soldiers unless by consent of parliament.*" From this latter provision it is undeniable that nothing but the consent of parliament could give authority to make any man a soldier by compulsion. The sentence in Blackstone is not clearly expressed; but the meaning is certainly this: That the consent of parliament alone can give authority to make men soldiers by compulsion; that soldiers made so by compulsion cannot be forced to go out of the kingdom at any rate; nor out of the *shire*, but in cases of urgent necessity. It is evident, at the same time, that these provisions refer only to force and compulsion, and not to the cases of voluntary service, or service by compact, as in consequence of a military tenure. That nothing like force, or the prerogative talked of was concerned with the commission of array is further evident from the nature of the institution appointed to succeed the commission of array. That institution is the commission of lieutenancy, which has clearly nothing to do with force or this assumed prerogative. Yet the powers of the commission of lieutenancy are stated by all our lawyers as the same with those of the commissions of array. "About the reign of King Henry VIII. or his children," says Blackstone, whom we have so often quoted, "lieutenants began to be introduced, as standing representatives of the crown, to keep the counties in military order. But the introduction of these commissions of lieutenancy, *which contained in substance the same powers as the old commissions of array*, caused the latter to fall into disuse."

But whatever might be the force or extent of these statutes of armour, they on no account can be pleaded now as the foundation of any right or authority; as they were all expressly repealed in the reign of James I. During the reign of that peaceful prince little attention was paid to supply their place by better laws. When Charles, his son, after the commencement of his disputes with his people, began to exercise military powers, in consequence of his prerogative which he conceived to be unbounded, they were all disputed, not without some appearance of right, according to Blackstone, who says B. I. c. 13, that the *legality* of the prerogative, in this respect, might perhaps be somewhat *doubtful*. These powers were usurped by the long parliament. On the restoration of Charles II. it was deemed wise to confer the regulation of the public force upon the King. And statutes were enacted for that purpose. These statutes likewise prescribed what species of force was to be employed, over which the King was to have the controul; and to what amount it was competent to be raised. In fact they established the militia: "And the order in which the militia is now established by law," says Blackstone, "is principally built upon the statutes which were then enacted." The militia was therefore brought in the room of all the ancient institutions respecting military force; and the laws regarding the militia were intended to supersede all preceding military laws and regulations whatsoever. The militia is indeed the only species of military force known to the laws of this country, for the laws which regard troops of the line are merely temporary; and "they are to be looked upon," says Blackstone, "as temporary excrescences, bred out of the distemper of the state, and not as any part of the permanent and perpetual laws of the kingdom. For martial law, which is built upon no settled principles, but is entirely arbitrary in its decisions, is, as Sir Matth. Hale observes, in truth and reality no law, but something indulged rather than allowed as a law." Various circumstances however, in the state of Europe, having rendered a more efficient force than a militia often necessary, an annual act of parliament passes, for the regulation of this force. But this annual act and the statutes of Ch. II. conferring on the King the command of the militia, are the sole foundation of the military authority which the King possesses; and military authority, not conveyed by these, or by new acts of parliament, ought never to be talked of in this country. There are various other important considerations connected with this subject; but we are obliged to defer them.

Political History from April 16 to May 1.

FOREIGN.

EAST-INDIES.—Our victories in this quarter continue to be rapid and brilliant. The Mahrattas, indeed, fight both with courage and skill, and our successes are consequently earned by the slaughter of many of our gallant countrymen. Still however we are conquerors; and the resources of our enemies must be great indeed, if they be not speedily ex-

hausted by their repeated overthrows.—After the capture of Agra, General Lake set out in pursuit of the remainder of the enemies forces: and on the 1st of November last came up, by forced marches, with fifteen regular battalions who had been sent from the Decean, and two battalions who had escaped from Delhi. These formed the only remaining army of Scindia in that quarter, and were commanded by French officers. After a very desperate resistance on their part, and a considerable loss on ours, almost the whole of the enemy were cut to pieces or made prisoners.—On the 29th of the same month, General Wellesley gained a decisive and fortunately less bloody victory over the forces of Scindia and the Rajah of Berar. The enemy had sued for a truce, and agreed to retire to a certain distance from our troops; but after waiting the appointed time for their retreat, General Wellesley, observing that they still retained their ground and shewed no inclination to move off, gave them notice that he would advance to the limits agreed on in the truce, and that if he met with them in his way he would attack them. An engagement was the consequence: the loss fell chiefly on the forces of the Rajah of Berar; the slaughter on our part was inconsiderable, and not an officer was killed.

General Pichegru.—The murder of the Duke d'Enghien has been followed up, as was to be expected, by other acts of atrocity. The general indignation excited by the mock trial and barbarous execution of that young prince seems to have alarmed the First Consul, and to have made him afraid to hazard any more public exhibitions of the same nature. It was therefore found more convenient that General Pichegru should be made away with in that problematical manner, which would enable the Consul boldly to disavow any knowledge of the affair. The General accordingly, we are told, one night strangled himself with a silk handkerchief, which he twisted round his neck by means of a piece of wood until it produced suffocation. It is difficult to say whether the situation of General Pichegru, or the clumsy manner in which the story of his death is made up, affords the strongest proof of its falsehood. He had formerly been inured to the hardships of a prison; he had been publicly tried and condemned by a tyrannical government, and had looked forward to a scaffold without shrinking. He could not therefore doubt of his own resolution, and he knew that his trial by a court of minions, selected for the purpose, and his subsequent execution, must have thrown a great degree of odium on the tyrant against whom he had conspired. No motive can be assigned for his committing suicide, but a desire to remove a load of reproach from Bonaparte, and to fix an everlasting stain on his own memory. The official report of his death contains more suspicious circumstances than could have been expected to escape the minions of the Consular court, so long practised in dark transactions. After the attendant of Pichegru had retired, and he, as we are told, was left quite alone, the most minute description is given of the manner in which he strangled himself. "He pulled the silk handkerchief from under his pillow, tied it tight round his neck, introduced the piece of wood into the two ends of the handkerchief, and then turned it close to the glands of the neck as often as he thought necessary to put a stop to respiration."—Who saw all this process? The attendant ought by some means to have been left in the chamber to give the information.——In the morning, when the attendant went in, we are told he observed Pichegru's head resting quietly on the pillow, and every thing in such a state of composure that he imagined him to be in a profound sleep; as if a man could lie in this composed manner and expire, without being shaken by those convulsive pangs which always attend suffocation. One of the guards, stationed near the chamber-door, appears to have understood the matter better: he deposed that he had heard a considerable degree of struggling and noise: how the deceased had afterwards composed himself on his bed remains to be explained. According to the opinion of medical men in this kingdom, Pichegru could not have strangled himself in the manner alleged: His strength must have failed him before he could have twisted the handkerchief so tightly round his neck as to put a stop to respiration.

DOMESTIC.

Struggles of Parties.—On Monday the 23rd Mr. Fox brought in a motion which was supported by the united efforts of all the opposition parties. This motion, which was for the appointment of a committee to enquire into the measures taken for the defence of the nation, was extremely well calculated for uniting all in opposition. No specific measure was proposed, nor was any particular part of the defensive system pointed out as its object; and thus every one might expect that the part he censured would also be censured by the committee. The motion was warmly supported by Mr. Pitt, who now openly declared that he had no hopes of the country being placed in a better situation by the present ministers. On a division there appeared

For Mr. Fox's motion.....	204
Against it.....	256
Majority	52

The ministry were supposed on this occasion to have rallied their whole strength, and the very large numbers of the minority were considered as a strong indication of their approaching downfal.—On the following Wednesday, Mr. Pitt renewed the attack, on a motion for the house going into a committee on an act for suspending the operations of the Army of Reserve Bill. He gave the outlines of a plan of his own, which was calculated to extend the operation of the ballot still more widely, and to procure by this means, a large permanent force. In this project of recruiting our armies by compulsory means, he was (strange to tell!) supported by Mr. Fox; and on a division whether the bill should now be committed, there appeared, for the motion, 240; against it 203: so that the majority for ministers was here reduced to 37.—In the house of lords the opposition is stronger than it was at any time against Lord North.

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NOTICES.

LITERARY.

A work by Mr. Parkinson of Hoxton, on the organic remains of the former world is in considerable forwardness. The first part, on the fossils of the vegetable kingdom, illustrated with coloured plates, in quarto, will we understand be published on the first of June next.

Mr. Byerley has in the press a work under the title of "CONTINENTAL SKETCHES," comprising a portrait of Revolutionary Holland, and an Essay on the Ancient and Modern Histories of the Low Countries, and an Inquiry into the Political and Commercial Interests of the Dutch, as deduced therefrom. To which an Appendix will be subjoined containing an Analysis of Mr. Holcroft's recent work, and its importance as a book of *Travels* ascertained.

We are much pleased to learn that Miss Hamilton has a literary production in forwardness. Whatever comes from the pen of the Author of "Letters of a Hindoo Rajah," cannot fail to furnish both amusement and instruction.

CAMBRIDGE.—Mr. Gimighan, Mr. Clarke, Mr. Holden, and Mr. Palmer are candidates for the Arabic professorship vacant by the death of professor Carlyle, who by his attainments in the Arabic language was highly deserving the honour. The University of Cambridge, sixty years ago, was not much inclined to hear lectures on the Oriental languages, and Chappelow, after three months' attendance in the schools, could not procure one scholar; upon which he gave notice of departure, and left behind him the following inscription:

Cras Arabs ibit in desertum.

The case is altered since Mr. Clarke's return from his travels in Egypt.

NEW PHILOSOPHICAL JOURNAL AT MADRID.——The amateurs of literature will be glad to learn that a Journal has just commenced publication at Madrid, the object of which is to treat of physical and mathematical science, natural history, agriculture, medicine, and the arts of industry, the different branches of literature and the fine arts. This may powerfully contribute to promote the improvement of Spain, both in industry and civilization.

SCIENTIFIC.

REMARKABLE PETRIFACTION.——At *Vaucelles* in a department of the north of France, a petrifaction of a curious nature has been discovered. A workman in breaking a stone that came from the ruins of the Abbey of Vaucelles, divided it into two parts, the one of which presented the impression of a fish, and the other the same fish in *relievo*. The fish was examined on the spot by the professors of the College of Cambray, who came to the place for that purpose. The result of their observation was, that this was the petrifaction of a fish in the most excellent state of preservation. It is from 75 to 80 *centimetres* in length, and 18 in breadth. It appears to be of the abdominal class, and a salmon. The scales are of a violet colour mixed with yellow. A lateral line of a pale white colour, and nearer the back than the belly, runs along the trunk and describes a curve. The colours of the impression and of the *relievo* are the same. The stone has been proved to have been originally taken from a quarry in the neighbourhood of *Vaucelles*, which has been abandoned for a long time. If further observations were made upon the stones of this quarry, they might perhaps exhibit the same phænomena as the mountain situated in the neighbourhood of Verona. The proprietor of the petrifaction has given it as a present to the Museum of Cambray, but on condition that it shall not be given up to any other Museum.

PRIZE QUESTION.—The question proposed for competition this year by the class of physical and mathematical sciences at Paris, is this:—"What are the characters that in animal and vegetable matter distinguish the active and passive substances in the operation of fermentations?"

VOLCANO OF TORCELLO.——The celebrated traveller Humboldt has descended into the crater of the volcano of Torcello, which still burns, to the depth of seventy *toises*, being only about fifteen toises from the bottom. He states, that the examination of this volcano, which has existed only since the 29th of September 1759, will enable him to throw considerable light on the nature of these terrible phænomena.

ROOT OF JALAP.—There is in the garden of the Museum of Natural History in France, a plant of Jalap of which the history is somewhat curious. It has sprung from a jalap root brought in Oct. 1801, from Charlestown. It was preserved in fresh moss during the passage, and was out of the earth about four months and a half. Being weighed before it was put in the earth, its weight was forty-seven pounds three quarters. It has flourished vigorously. It is probable that this plant so useful in medicine will be cultivated with success in the south of France.

AGUST EARTH.—C. F. Bucholz has written a letter to the editors of the *Neues Allgemeines Journal der Chimie*, from which it appears that the *Agust Earth* which has been considered as a simple earth, has been ascertained by experiment to be nothing else than phosphate of lime. If this be correct, and there can be little doubt about it, the phosphate of lime has been three times considered as a simple earth; as ivory earth, bone earth, and agust earth. It is not likely that chemists will in future be led into this error.

DRY ROT.—Benjamin Johnson, Esq. of Ipswich, and Richard Ramsden Bramley, Esq. of Leeds, have turned their attention to the cause of the dry rot in timber. The former ascribes it to a plant (the *boletus lachrymans*) whose leaf resembles that of the vine. This plant rises from the earth into the wood and rots it as it advances. The only method of preventing it is to take care to place mortar under and about the bottom of the wood, or any substance which the plant cannot penetrate. The latter asserts that the dry rot is owing to the wood being cut down too early, or its being employed and perhaps painted before it has hardened and evaporated its moisture. Both are perhaps in the right, for sometimes it is caused by one and sometimes by the other, and sometimes by both together.

TURNIPS PRESERVED FROM THE FLY.—Mr. G. Lindley of Catton near Norfolk has succeeded in saving a crop of Swedish turnips from the fly by sowing radishes with the seed. It is necessary to draw a drag-rake over the ground pretty often at the first appearance of the plant. The radishes, Mr. Lindley observes, are the object of their fury, and where these are numerous the turnip will be safe and vigorous. As Mr. Lindley has saved a crop by this method, it must be considered as a good one, otherwise its efficacy might have been doubted.

CURE FOR THE FEVER IN THE WEST-INDIES.—Doctor Keutsch an able physician in the Danish West India islands of St. Croix and St. Thomas, has established a new method which has hitherto proved successful in the treatment of fevers peculiar to these islands, and which are fatal to Europeans. He employs friction with oil, a process first suggested by Scheele of Copenhagen in regard to the use of oil in the plague. Of eight soldiers under the care of Dr. Keutsch, six were cured of the fever in twenty-four hours by means of such friction. It produced strong perspiration and checked the vomiting. The effect of the friction is rendered more efficacious by the mixing of camphor with the oil. The discovery is certainly valuable. The fever cured by this process is the same that occasioned so much ravage at St. Domingo.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

System of Chemistry. By Thomas Thomson, *M.D. Lecturer on Chemistry in Edinburgh. 4 vols. 2l. 2s. Edinburgh* 1804.

THE great variety of chemical publications issuing almost daily from the press, indicates, at least with regard to chemical subjects, the existence of a spirit of inquiry, from the energy and operation of which the happiest results are to be expected. Among these publications Dr. Thomson's System of Chemistry holds a most distinguished rank. It is indeed what it professes to be a more complete collection of facts, in a smaller compass, and it may be added more systematically arranged than any other work of the kind hitherto published. A new edition, including all the additional facts and discoveries which the laborious research of the author has been able either to make or collect since the first publication of the work, is now presented to the public And such is the rapid progress which this favourite science is making that every new edition of a book of this nature may be regarded as a new work. This sufficiently establishes the necessity of criticizing, even at length, the several editions of a work, so universally acknowledged to be the most perfect view of chemistry which has yet been offered to the public. The rapid sale of the first edition and the urgent demand for a second are at once a most decisive proof of the merit of the work, and of the ardour with which the study of chemistry is pursued.

The work which consists of four large volumes octavo is divided into two parts; the first comprehending the science of chemistry properly so called; the second, a chemical examination of nature. The former part is sub-divided into three books, the first of which treats of simple substances, the second of compound substances, and the third of chemical affinity. The latter part is sub-divided into five books, which treat respectively of the atmosphere, of waters, of minerals, of vegetables, of animals. So far the order of arrangement corresponds with that of the former edition, but in the subordinate distribution of parts there is to be found a considerable number of alterations and improvements.

The first book treats of simple substances. The simple substances are divided into confinable and unconfinable bodies. This distinction which was not adopted in the last edition, at least as a ground of arrangement, will doubtless be regarded as an improvement, because the very terms of division point out peculiar properties of the classes of substances to which they are respectively applied. The terms are indeed new, but they express clearly the idea intended to be conveyed and accord precisely with the analogy of the language.

The confinable simple substances are oxygen, simple combustibles, simple incombustibles and metals. Among these oxygen holds the first place, because from its important agencies in the phænomena of chemistry it is necessary that the learner be made acquainted with it as early as possible. The simple combustibles are sulphur, phosphorus, carbon and hydrogen. Their properties are clearly and concisely stated under their respective heads, and the chapter which treats of them is closed with some important remarks exhibiting in a clear and luminous point of view their different combinations with oxygen.

The simple incombustibles are azote and muriatic acid In the former edition azote was classed along with the simple combustibles, but as its combination with oxygen does not amount to combustion, in the popular acceptation of the term, that is to say, is not accompanied with the extrication of heat and light, it is to be regarded rather as an incombustible substance. At first sight the reader may perhaps be somewhat surprised to find muriatic acid in this department of the work. But his surprize will subside into approbation, when he has considered the reasons for which the author has introduced it. Like azote the act of its combination with oxygen does not occasion combustion, nor is the compound which it forms with oxygen combustible. But both of these substances when combined with oxygen are capable of supporting combustion, and of all the simple substances they only possess this property.

The introductory chapter on metals exhibits a concise and perspicuous view of their general properties and of Stahl's theory of their component parts, together with Lavoisier's refutation of it. It contains also several improvements in nomenclature. The term oxidizement, for reasons given by Mr. Chenevix, is adopted by Dr. Thomson, in preference to the term oxidation, to denote the act of the union of oxygen with a metal. The mode of denominating oxides from their colour is now also abandoned, as being apt to mislead the practitioner; because the same oxide is capable of assuming different colours according to circumstances. To remedy this defect of nomenclature, Dr. Thomson proposes to distinguish the oxides from each other by prefixing to the word oxide the first syllable of the Greek ordinal numerals. A metal combined with minimum of oxygen is the protoxide of that metal, with a second dose the deutoxide, with a third dose the tritoxide, &c. and with a maximum of oxygen the peroxide. Since the publication of the last edition a new metal has been discovered by Mr. Ekeberg, a Swedish chemist, to which he has given the name of Tantalium The metals at present known therefore are twenty-three in number. They are divided into three classes—the malleable—

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the brittle and easily fused—the brittle and difficultly fused. The metals of the first class are—gold, platinum, silver, mercury, copper, iron, tin, lead, nickel, zinc; of the second—bismuth, antimony, tellurium, arsenic; of the third—cobalt, manganese, tungsten, molybdenum, uranium, titanium, chronium, columbium, tantalium. In the detail of particulars no mode of treating a subject could have been devised more clear and methodical, and more happily calculated to convey accurate ideas to the reader, than that which has been adopted with regard to the metals. Wherever it is practicable or important each metal is treated of under six particulars—its history and properties, its oxides, its union with combustibles, its union with incombustibles, its alloys, its affinities. Such new facts as have been ascertained with regard to their properties since the publication of the former edition are now introduced. The super-sulphuret and sub-carburets of iron are examples.

The unconfinable simple substances are light and caloric. Besides these there are yet two other unconfinable simple substances known to exist in nature, namely, electricity and magnetism; but the latter can scarcely be considered as belonging to chemistry, and the former Dr. Thomson proposes to consider in a separate work. In the first chapter of the division which treats of light, the different opinions of philosophers concerning its nature are shortly and accurately stated, and its phænomena and properties explained upon the principles of the Newtonian theory. The discovery of the deoxidizing rays which together with the colorific rays are emitted from the sun, forms one of the additional facts with which this edition of the work is enriched. The second chapter of this division treats of caloric. It is divided into six sections which treat respectively of the nature of caloric, its motion, distribution, effects, quantity, sources. The section on the nature of caloric contains an account of Dr. Herschell's discovery of the calorific rays of light, from which with the discoveries in the former chapter, it is now ascertained that the solar light is composed of three sets of rays, the colorific, the calorific, and the deoxidizing. The section on the motion of caloric is extremely interesting. Its different kinds of motion, whether it be transmitted, conducted or transported are accurately distinguished, while the illustration of the manner in which it is conducted through bodies is extremely happy and ingenious. All solids are conductors. But it has been doubted whether fluids are also conductors Count Rumford's experiments seem to prove that they are not; but Dr. Thomson's experiments, which have been confirmed by the experiments of Messrs Murray and Dalton, prove that they are. The section which treats of the effects of caloric contains an account of Mr. Dalton's interesting and ingenious experiments on the expansion of gases and liquids, which have been made since the publication of the former edition of this work, together with a number of important experiments by Dr. Thomson himself. It contains also a clear and perspicuous view of Dr. Black's theory of latent heat or caloric of fluidity, and of the experiments on which it was founded. The theories of Dr. Irvine and Mr. Dalton concerning the absolute quantity of caloric contained in bodies are examined with much acuteness and ability, and shown to be unfounded or defective.

The sources of caloric are next examined. They are the sun, combustion, percussion, friction, mixture. In treating of combustion the theories of Hooke, Stahl and Lavoisier, with their various modifications are concisely but perspicuously stated and their defects pointed out.

The author then subjoins a sketch of his own theory of combustion, which must be allowed to be by far the most satisfactory that has hitherto been offered to the notice of the chemist. This together with its after application to various departments of the work may be considered as one of the most important improvements of this edition. All bodies in nature are either combustibles, incombustibles, or supporters of combustion. Supporters are substances which are not themselves strictly speaking capable of undergoing combustion, but whose presence is necessary to the process. The supporter which is either oxygen, or a substance of which oxygen forms a component part, contains a basis and heat. The combustible contains a basis and light. During combustion the heat of the supporter combines with the light of the combustible and flies off in the form of fire. The base of the combustible combines also with the base of the supporter and forms a product of combustion. Combustion then is a double decomposition.

The second book treats of compound bodies. Compound bodies are divided into primary and secondary. The primary compounds, which are formed by the combination of two or more simple substances with each other, are the alkalies, earths, oxides, acids, and compound combustibles. In the former edition the earths were said to be ten in number. But since the publication of that edition a supposed earth, agustine, has been found to be only phosphat of lime. They are now therefore reduced to nine.

The chapter on oxides is very materially improved. By the introduction of the distinctions which arise from the application of the author's theory of combustion, oxides are now divided into three classes—combustible oxides, oxide products, and oxide supporters. The utility of the division must be obvious to every one, as the substances belonging to each of these classes possess properties altogether different. The detail of particulars is also much extended as may be seen by consulting the sections on the oxides of carbon and azote.

Similar distinctions have been introduced also among the acids, which are likewise divided into three classes, namely, acid products, acid supporters, and combustible acids. The detail is also enriched with a number of new facts. Such are the facts resulting from the experiments of Mr. Chenevix on the oxymuriatic and hyperoxymuriatic acids.

To the number of compound combustibles whose properties were investigated in the former edition, tan is now added. The nature and properties of this substance, have been lately investigated by Davy and Deyeux with much labour, but with proportional success. The other compound combustibles which are here treated of, are fixed oils, volatile oils, alcohol, ether.

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The secondary compounds, which are formed by the combination of two or more primary compounds, are, combinations of earths, glass, salts, hydrosulphurets, soaps. The first chapter of this division contains a brief and general view of the compounds, natural and artificial, which the earths are capable of forming with each other and with metallic oxides, with a description of those mixtures which are employed in the manufacture of porcelain and stoneware.

The chapter on salts has, in this edition, undergone considerable alterations, which will doubtless also be regarded as improvements. They are divided, as formerly, into two grand classes; the first comprehending the earthy and alkaline salts; the second, the metalline. But the former are now subdivided into two orders, the incombustible and combustible, under which the genera are respectively arranged; the latter are not indeed so subdivided, though a mode of doing it is pointed out, but the genera are divided into sets, according to certain properties which they possess; the detonating, the incombustible, the combustible, the metallic, the triple salts.

The hydrosulphurets, that class of substances so important in chemical analysis, are treated with all the minuteness of detail, which the state of the science admits.

The third book treats of affinity. In the examination of this obscure and intricate part of his subject, the author exhibits a most correct and masterly specimen of analytical investigation. It is considered first under the head of affinity in general, which is perhaps only a modification of the law of gravitation, and then under the particular heads of homogeneous affinity, heterogeneous affinity and repulsion. The different theories by which philosophers have endeavoured to explain the phænomena of affinity are stated and examined, and its laws as far as they have been ascertained, pointed out.

The second part of the work contains a chemical examination of nature. The first book treats of the atmosphere. In this book the component parts of the atmosphere are traced out and ascertained, and the various phenomena of meteorology investigated. The hypothesis of Mr. Dalton, who considers the union of the component parts of the air of the atmosphere to be merely a mechanical mixture, is now also examined. But Dr. Thomson, for reasons which must be allowed to be very cogent, considers it, with the majority of philosophers, as a chemical compound. The chapter which treats of meteorology, contains also an additional section on the stony bodies which have fallen from the atmosphere.

The second book treats of waters—it contains "a general view of the different springs and collections of water, and gives an account of their properties and component parts, as far as they have been hitherto ascertained;" together with an account of Mr. Kirwan's method of analysis.

The third book treats of mineralogy. In the present edition, this book has received many considerable alterations and improvements, and may be regarded as an excellent introductory treatise on the subject. It is divided into three departments. The first—an account of the properties and constituents of minerals. The second, an account of their various combinations, or of compound minerals; the third, the art of analyzing minerals.

The fourth book treats of vegetables. This book is also very considerably enlarged and improved in the present edition, and exhibits marks of the most profound and laborious investigation. The subject naturally resolves itself into three divisions—an account of the substances of which plants are composed—an account of the vegetation of plants as far as it can be illustrated by chemistry—an account of the changes which plants undergo, after they cease to vegetate. The substances which have been hitherto found in the vegetable kingdom, and examined with any degree of accuracy, are sugar, gum, jelly, sarcocoll, tan, bitter principle, narcotic principle, acids, starch, indigo, extractive principle, albumen, gluten, febrina, oils, wax, resins, camphor, caoutchone, sanderacha, gum resins, wood, suber, alkalies, earths, metals. The result of the analysis of these substances is, that vegetables are composed chiefly and ultimately of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen. The phænomena of vegetation are next examined with much acuteness and perspicuity, and the putrifactive and fermentative processes accurately described.

The fifth book treats of animals. Animal chemistry, of all chemical subjects the most complicated and perplexed, begins notwithstanding to assume and exhibit a scientific form. Dr. Thomson's manner of treating this subject is extremely judicious and systematic. The substances which have been hitherto detected in the animal kingdom and subjected to chemical analysis are, gelatine, albumen, febrina, mucilage, urea, sugar, oils, resins, sulphur, phosphorus, acids, alkalies, earths, metals. The result of the analysis of these substances is, that animal bodies are composed chiefly and ultimately of azote, carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, phosphorus, lime. The parts of animals are next examined. They are divided into solids and fluids. The solids are distinguished into soft parts and hard parts, the fluids into blood, and the secretions formed from it. But as there are some substances which make their appearance only during disease, they are in the present edition considered apart, under the titles of *morbid secretions* and *morbid concretions*. The processes by which the different secretions are formed, and the animal economy conducted, are examined under the title of animal functions, and the subject is concluded with a chapter on the decomposition of animal bodies.

In an appendix there are to be found several important facts or discoveries, which were made or ascertained whilst this edition was in the press, but too late to be introduced in their proper places. Among these are to be found the discovery of sulphuretted muriatic acid by Dr. Thomson himself, with an account of its properties and composition, and a set of experiments on the alloys of gold and platinum, by Mr. Hatchett, and on the metal called palladium by Mr. Chenevix. Besides the alterations in nomenclature already mentioned, there are several others to

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be met with in the course of the work, in most of which the author agrees with Mr. Chenevix. It was Dr. Thomson's intention to conclude the work with some remarks on chemical nomenclature, but the great size to which the last volume had swelled, prevented the addition. These remarks would certainly have been very acceptable to the reader.

Such is a short analysis of this extensive but elaborate work, a work that does the greatest credit to the talents and reputation of the author. Dr. Thomson's distinguished abilities and complete knowledge of the subject are equally conspicuous, whether we regard his happy and ingenious illustrations of some of the most complicated phænomena of the science, the perspicuity of his arrangements, the profundity of his research, or the address and dexterity with which he detects and confutes the errors or fallacies of others. Whoever is qualified fully to appreciate the merits of this work, will have no difficulty in allowing it to be a most finished and masterly view of the present state of chemical science. It is without doubt the best and most complete elementary work on the subject in the English language. But it needs no praise of ours to recommend it to the notice of the chemist. Its merits are already known, its utility has been already felt.

But great as the merits of this work confessedly are, it has not escaped the objections of the caviller. The objections alluded to, were urged indeed only against the former edition, but as the work is still substantially the same, the greater part of them if they have any force, are equally valid against the present edition. It is necessary therefore, in defence of that view of the work which we have given, to make some reply to these objections. It was the object of the author to facilitate as much as possible the study of chemistry, by collecting into one body the vast number of facts which constitute the science, blended with the history of their gradual developement and of the theories which have been founded upon them. Such subjects are first introduced, as admit of the plainest and simplest mode of illustration, and no previous knowledge of chemistry is supposed. One would think that an undertaking of so much probable utility at least, upon a plan so very unexceptionable, was entitled to commendation rather than blame. A critic says, he is surprized to hear of a full detail of the facts and history of chemistry from one man. But because he happens to be surprized at this, ought no one man ever to attempt to make himself acquainted with the whole system of chemistry? To what extent, to please this gentleman, should an author direct his views!—Science suffered no detriment from the widely extended views of Bacon, Boyle or Newton, and yet the range of investigation which their studies embraced, was even more extensive and complicated than the science of chemistry itself. The extent of an undertaking can be no good ground of objections, if the abilities of the undertaker are but adequate to it.

In the chapter which treats of oxygen, the critic says, that owing to the author's plan, he meets with "little else than the usual methods of procuring this gas, its physical properties and capability of supporting flame and animal life." But if the plan must be allowed to be a good one, and if this be one of its necessary consequences, of what force is this objection? The reader is not yet supposed to be prepared for much of detail.

In the section which treats of sulphur, Stahl's theory of phlogistion is introduced, and as the objector thinks, too early. But it requires no previous knowledge of chemistry to qualify any one for comprehending the principles upon which the doctrines of phlogistion are founded; and where could it have been introduced with more propriety than when treating of combustible substances, of the very substance indeed, which was supposed to furnish the most undeniable proof of its existence.

The chapter on metals has afforded an extensive field of observation to the same objector, and occasioned a number of remarks. He says it is imperfect and inaccurate. Inaccuracies—1. The oxide of lead is reducible *per se* when exposed to a violent heat.—This is merely a typographical error which had found its way even into the new edition, lead having been substituted for platinum. A proof that it is merely typographical is, that the error is to be found only in the introductory chapter, but not in the detail of particulars. For, there the account is just as it should be; the oxide of platinum is said to be reducible by exposing it to a violent heat, but no mention is made of any such reduction of any of the oxides of lead. In the present edition it is put into the errata.—2. Putty is called an oxide of tin, though it contains also lead.—The truth of this remark may be granted without detracting much from the merit of the work.

3. Most of the sulphurets are destitute of metallic lustre. This, says the reviewer, is a singular oversight. But where is the oversight? The author alluded no doubt to the artificial ones, with regard to which, this is the fact. 4. The possibility of sulphuret of platinum is denied —It is expressly mentioned, not indeed in the chapter on metals, but in treating on the metallic ores, in the book on minerals. The assertion therefore is false. What is said under the head of platinum, amounts to no more than a belief of the impracticability of forming an artificial sulphuret of that metal, or to a doubt of its existence.

Omissions.—1. The action of caustic potass on platinum is not mentioned —It could not have been mentioned in the place where the objector requires it, owing indeed to the author's plan, but it is now to be found in a note on the analysis of earths and stones. 2. The account of the alloys of gold and platinum is a meagre one, because the Manuel d'Essayeur was not consulted.—The question is not whether the account given be a meagre one or not, but whether the existing state of the science afforded a better. Nothing in the Manuel d'Essayeur could have been inserted with propriety.

3. Instead of a description of the method of making *aurum musivum*, a reference to Pelletier is given.—The method is by far too complicated for that part of the treatise. The reference therefore is proper. 4. Newton's fusible metal is omitted.—It is to be found in the present edition. 5. The concluding remarks on the metals are trifling.—That, indeed,

may be this critic's opinion of them, but they contain two of the most important tables in the whole book.

The next objections relate to the primary compounds. 1st. The arrangements of the earths and alkalies as compounds is improper and absurd.—The arrangement occasions no obscurity nor perplexity, and is founded on reasons which the objector has perhaps not attended to. The circumstance of their refusing to combine with oxygen, distinguishes the earths and alkalies from all the substances arranged in the work as simple; and they are to be regarded as compounds because one of them has been actually proved to be a compound, and because there is presumptive evidence that the rest are so. 2. The methods of obtaining alumina and silica are not the most accurate.—They are, however, the simplest and require fewer of the substances which had not been already described than any other method of obtaining them. 3. In treating of earths, Agustine ought to have been omitted.—For what reason?—It was then pretty generally believed to be a new earth, though later experiments have proved that it is not Had they proved the contrary and Dr. Thomson omitted it, then the criticizer would have placed it among his omissions. 4. The oxides of azote ought to have been considered under nitric acid.—If this be the objector's opinion, he ought at least to have shewn on what reasons his opinion is founded. 5. In treating of the acids, there is not that minuteness of detail which is valuable to the practical chemist.—1st. Because there is no mention made of the use of nitrat of barytes in purifying nitric acid.—If the critic had not been in such a furious haste to point out what he considered as defects, this remark might perhaps have been spared. The information that he wanted is to be found under the head of nitrat of barytes. But if it were not to be found there, still the author in preparing nitric acid, must be supposed to have the privilege of making use of nitre already pure if he pleases. And till the criticizer can deprive him of that privilege, his process must be allowed to be a good one. 2. Because the method of preparing oxalic acid from nut-galls is not mentioned.—It was not necessary, considering the plan of the work, to state every method of preparing this or any other substance. The method that is stated is a very good one. 3. Because Scheele's method of preparing gallic acid is mis-stated.—It is the method stated by Scheele in Crell's journal, and if the objector chooses to adopt it, he will find it to be a very good and successful method.

The next are the remarks on the secondary compounds. 1. The section on stoneware, shows that the author never visited a pottery in his life.—To support this empty and dogmatical assertion, it would have been necessary to point out some notorious error or defect in that section. But since the criticizer has not done so, the reader is at liberty to conclude that he could not do it, for no one will doubt his inclination. Besides they are the processes described in Watson's chemical essays, a book that is in every body's hands. 2. In the account of glass, the experiments of Reaumur and Lewis are omitted, and nothing is said of the use of manganese.—It was not consistent with the author's plan to mention them. 3. The chapter on soaps indicates an ignorance of the manufacture of that article.—This and the two foregoing objections are founded in a mistake. It was not the object of the author to teach the art of making stoneware, glass and soap, as practised by manufacturers, but to give a general view of the *rationale* of the processes, which of necessity precluded the possibility of giving an exact description of what is actually done at our manufactories. 4. The acid soaps and savonules ought to have been described.—The author described them in the article chemistry in the Encyclopædia Britannica, and since he has not described them in the present work, we must suppose that he considered it as inconsistent with his plan. But a better reason is, that the accounts of these substances hitherto published are erroneous We know that Dr Thomson has made some curious experiments on this subject which he may one day publish. 5. The account of the salts is too confined.—In what respect, pray?—Their chemical properties are very fully described, but to enumerate their uses, if that be what the reviewer wanted, was not consistent with the plan of the work. But this account shows also, it seems, that the author is ignorant of the German language! Who does not perceive that this is merely an invidious and illiberal insinuation?—If it is not, it was incumbent on the critic to show how he came to be possessed of the faculty of the second sight, (a faculty of very rare occurrence in the present age,) as it is impossible to conceive how he should have come to the knowledge of the supposed fact otherwise. He may rest assured, however, that in this instance, at least, his powers of divination have most completely misled him.

There are yet one or two objections more. 1st. The methods which are assigned for obtaining pure metals are bad, of which that for obtaining lead is given as an instance. We are strongly tempted to suspect that the objector never made trial of it. Klaproth has since published the very same. 2. The account of vegetables is defective and inaccurate.—The inaccuracies have not been pointed out, and the defects are amply supplied in the second edition.

These are the whole, or all that are important, of the objections urged against this work, of which a great part are altogether nugatory, being founded on a misapprehension of the author's object; part false, and the rest obviated in the present edition. The objector seems to have expected a work altogether faultless, but he should remember the aphorism of the poet:

> "Whoe'er expects a faultless work to see
> Expects what never was, nor is, nor e'er shall be."

The wonder, however, is not that there should have been a few errors or mistakes committed in a work of such magnitude and intricacy as this, but that there should have been so few. And where the merits of a performance are so very conspicuous as those of this work, a few trifling blemishes are not to be carped at with unreasonable severity, nor the advantages which it affords rejected. K.

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Sermons and other Miscellaneous Pieces. By the late Henry Hunter, *D.D. Minister of the Scots' Church, London-wall. To which are prefixed a Biographical Sketch of his Life, and a Critical Account of his Writings. 2 vols. 18s. Boards. J. Murray.*

The name of Dr. Henry Hunter has long been well-known to the literary world. His *Sacred Biography* stamped his character as a writer of sermons; and if the merits of a work are to be judged of by its success, we believe few pulpit orators had an equal boast with our author, who saw his *Sacred Biography* pass through seven or eight editions in his own lifetime. His other works have all successively been received with favour by the public; and to the close of his life, his reputation as an author remained undiminished. The volumes now laid before us consist of those Sermons which were found among his papers after his decease, with a few miscellaneous pieces, all relating to his clerical functions.

The first volume is entirely composed of discourses delivered at the administration of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper. The manner in which this Sacrament is administered by the established church of Scotland is peculiarly impressive, and admirably calculated for a display of pulpit eloquence. The ceremony is scarcely ever performed more than once or twice a year: familiarity with it and consequently indifference are by this means prevented; and people of all ranks and ages flock to its celebration with an eagerness and ardour of devotion, resembling that which drew together the Jews from every quarter of Palestine to their great annual festival at Jerusalem. Every clergyman has it in his own option to chuse the day on which this Sacrament is to be celebrated in his own parish. In announcing the day on which his choice has fallen, which he does from the pulpit on the third or fourth Sunday preceding it, he takes an opportunity of reminding his congregation of the nature of the ceremony, and the preparation, by self-examination and reflection, which is necessary to make them worthy partakers of a festival intended to celebrate the salvation of mankind. The week immediately preceding the appointed Sunday is devoted to the examination of those who desire to be admitted for the first time to this sacrament, with regard to the degree of knowledge they possess and their moral conduct. Two days, usually Thursday and Saturday, are set apart for the purposes of public devotion. The Thursday is appointed as a solemn fast, and the discourses delivered to the people on this day usually enforce the necessity of sincere repentance, and warn the hearers against expecting that a temporary zeal will be sufficient to make up for the want of virtue and piety in practice. On the Saturday, the discourses from the pulpit instruct the people in the sentiments which ought to be present to their minds, and the decent and devout behaviour which they ought to observe during the solemn ceremony of the morrow. On the Sunday morning the congregation meet at an earlier hour than usual. A Sermon is then delivered relative to the object of Jesus Christ's mission and death, and the other parts of the public worship are gone through according to the form of that church. The clergyman then, in a short discourse prepared for the occasion, sets forth the nature and importance of the ceremony, and the qualifications of those who ought to partake of it; he calls upon all true believers to join in its celebration, and adjures all those who disbelieve or are indifferent to Christianity in their hearts to refrain from making a mockery of divine things. A prayer for a blessing on the symbols of the bread and wine succeeds; and the congregation, in a regular and orderly succession seat themselves at the communion tables where these symbols are administered. A short exhortation to practice worthy of their profession is given at each successive table, and the whole ceremony concludes with a solemn blessing. In the evening a discourse is delivered reminding the people of the public profession of faith which they have made, and exhorting them to approve themselves true Christians by suitable lives. On the following Monday, the congregation assemble for a public thanksgiving, and a Sermon to this purpose concludes the celebration of the Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, according to the form of the Church of Scotland. Many opportunities, it is evident, are here presented to the clergymen of exhibiting their talents in pulpit oratory. As the minister of the parish is evidently himself unequal to undertake the labour of so many successive days, several of his neighbours are called in to his assistance, and here it is that the clergy have an opportunity of mutually estimating each others talents.

We have been thus particular in describing the celebration of this sacrament according to the forms of the church of Scotland, as otherwise it would not be possible for our English readers to comprehend the nature of the occasions which gave rise to the first volume of the Sermons before us. Most of them were delivered on the evening of the Sabbath, after the Sacrament had been administered. This was an occasion when the powers of the orator in impressing the feelings of his audience, had a particular opportunity for exertion; and it was in appeals to the heart that Dr. Hunter shone with peculiar excellence. The following extract will give an idea of the manner in which he endeavoured to turn the impressions of the preceding ceremony to practical purposes. After reminding his hearers of the vows of repentance and amendment which they had so lately made, he proceeds to exhort them to one of the most essential of duties, the instruction of the young and ignorant: to mothers he speaks as follows:—

"Let me call upon you, mothers; you have the best opportunities; you have the readiest access to their hearts—to you the complaints are commonly made, and the petitions preferred, and the inquiries addressed. Do I need to plead with you in behalf of the dear little ones, whom you suckled at your breasts, whom you watched over in infancy with such anxious and unremitting care, of whom you form such fond, perhaps extravagant hopes. To your honour I must say, that religion is more frequently to be found among you than in the parents of the other sex; improve then your opportunities, improve your influence, show that you are mothers indeed. Are there any here who have fatherless, any who have motherless children, any who have the charge of orphans? there is upon you who have charges of this kind, a double, a ten-fold obligation to care, diligence, and zeal. Call them around you,

pray over them, tell them in language suited to their tender capacities, that they are formed for eternity; tell them of the sin and misery of all mankind by nature—of the evil, the danger of continuing in sin, of the beauty and happiness of sincere unfeigned piety and holiness: tell them of the necessity of a Saviour, in order to pardon and acceptance with God. Open up to them the life and character of Jesus—the end of his coming into the world, and the nature of faith in him: explain to them the necessity and nature of true repentance; press all upon them, from the shortness and uncertainty of life, and the certainty of death and judgment: dwell particularly upon the history of the Redeemer, the dignity of his character, the purity and simplicity of his manners, the eminent virtues of his life, his painful and unmerited sufferings, the remarkable circumstances of his death. They will listen to all this with wonderful attention; they will soon come to understand how deeply they themselves are interested; they will early acquire the most useful of all knowledge: let it be your business to direct this knowledge immediately to practice."

Among the sermons in the second volume, we would particularly call the attention of our readers to that delivered at the admission of a minister to his living; on which occasion in Scotland a discourse by some ordained clergyman is always delivered. The Sermon alluded to contains an excellent specimen of that observation in the occurrences of life for which Dr. Hunter was distinguished; and which he had the art of applying in the pulpit without descending from the gravity and dignity of a preacher. In this instance he points out the circumstances which chiefly tend to bring the clerical character into disrepute, and the best means of counteracting them. Who will not be forcibly struck by the truth of the following observations?

"I would further observe under this head, that there is, unhappily for people of our profession, a set of men in the world, of the higher stations in life, no friends to the cause of religion and virtue, who affect the company and conversation of clergymen, and caress them highly for qualities that have no sort of connection with their office. By these marks of deceitful favour they are unwarily betrayed to go lengths highly unbecoming their profession, and indeed unbecoming any character, any profession. Hence it comes to pass, that their tempters are hardened in their own levity and wickedness; religion is brought into disrepute; the serious and good are offended—and the unhappy victims themselves are not seldom rewarded in the end with slight and ridicule from their betrayers, after they have lost, long before, the love and esteem of the sober and wise."

The whole of this discourse deserves the serious perusal of clergymen.

With regard to the style and structure of the Sermons in these volumes, it would be unfair in the critic to catch at casual inaccuracies, when we are told that they were not intended by the author for publication, and that they are given to the public exactly in the state in which he left them. In such circumstances it is rather to be wondered that there should be so few blemishes discoverable in the composition; and we may without hesitation declare it as our opinion, that Dr. Hunter's reputation as a pulpit orator will not be diminished by the publication of these discourses. His style of pulpit eloquence is already too generally known to require to be characterised. His chief excellence lies in warm and animated appeals to the feelings, and in placing in a strong light such practical observations as may be applied with advantage in the common conduct of life. His discourses seem all more immediately adapted for the pulpit than the press; and the expression in general has more of the animation of spoken language, than the studied turn of what is chiefly intended for the closet.

To the Sermons are subjoined a few funeral pieces. According to the forms of the church of Scotland, no service is performed at the grave, nor any oration pronounced unless over those whose death presents something particularly interesting to the public at large. In England, however, it is usual with the adherents of the church of Scotland to have a short address delivered over the remains of the departed when consigned to the grave. Such were the occasions which gave rise to the funeral pieces in these volumes; and to one whose particular talent lay in strong appeals to the feelings, they afforded the best opportunity for calling forth his powers. Of these little pieces, we have only to regret that the number is so few. Every reader must allow that they do the highest credit to the author. The last piece in this collection is an Address to the Friendly Female Society, whose benevolent and praise-worthy object is the relief of the aged, helpless and infirm of the female sex: our author's talents were never employed without effect in the cause of humanity.

To the first volume is prefixed a Life of Dr. Hunter, by a pupil who appears to have retained the warmest esteem for his instructor. If in this narrative we regret the want of those characteristic anecdotes which alone can render the life of a private person interesting to a general reader, we are still highly pleased with the glowing attachment expressed by the writer: and we account it no small honour to the memory of Dr. Hunter that he has left such an impression of his talents and virtues on those who knew him best. The repeated losses which he suffered in his family, are related in a manner that does equal credit to the head and heart of the writer of his life. Into this narrative is introduced an inscription, by a different hand, designed for a monument to be erected to the memory of our author. We should not have noticed it but for the remarkable contrast it bears to the simple and unaffected manners of him whom it is intended to commemorate: and for exhibiting a very complete picture of those extravagant and laboured epitaphs which Dr. Hunter in various parts of his writings so strongly ridicules and reprobates.

A short account is also given, by another hand, of the writings of Dr Hunter. Such a sketch is necessarily superficial, but it has this advantage that it presents the reader with a catalogue of our author's works, their principal objects, and the general opinions which have been formed concerning them.

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Celtic Researches on the Origin, Traditions, and Language of the Ancient Britons with some Introductory Sketches of primitive Society. By Edward Davies, *Curate of Olveston. Royal 8vo.* 12*s.* 6*d.*

The primitive condition of the human race, the origin of letters, and the manner in which the several

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parts of the world were first peopled, have furnished ample matter of dispute to the learned or curious inquirer. To trace the progress of human society in the different stages through which it has passed during the revolution of ages, is certainly in many points of view an important study. To the philosopher it is important; for a knowledge of the character of man, as it is exhibited at different periods of time, in distinct points of civilization, under different circumstances and in various situations, is essential to the successful investigation of human nature. To the man of science it is important; for in tracing the progress of the different departments of human attainments, he not only gratifies the most noble curiosity, but prepares his mind for further discovery and improvement. To every man it is important; for man in exploring the history of his kind, finds his own image reflected, enriches his mind with the most precious treasures of wisdom, and with the materials of the purest enjoyment, while he acquires the most valuable of all knowledge, *the knowledge of himself*. In later periods of society the mind proceeds in the well-known track conducted by the light of authentic history, but in remote ages, where this light fails, it is forced to explore its way through the mists of allegory and the gloom of fable, till, like a traveller benighted in some unknown region, it is lost in impenetrable obscurity. But the curiosity of man in developing the history of his species was not to be restrained. Conjecture took the lead where authentic document failed. Opinions have been formed as suited the views and passions of different individuals, and facts have been strained to support them. Hypothesis has succeeded hypothesis, while the framer of each has been more eager to establish his own theory, and to overturn those of others, than by sober inquiry to arrive at the truth. Perhaps, after all that *can* be done, certainty on this subject is not to be expected Where information is so scanty, a strong probability is the utmost point at which we can hope to arrive What degree of this probability is due to the system of the Curate of *Olveston*, the reader will presently be enabled to judge; but what will recommend his theory in a high degree to the liberal scholar and the candid critic, is the unpresuming modesty with which the author ushers it into the world, so different from that acrimonious style which the framers of hypotheses in general employ against their hypothetical rivals.

Another thing also which entitles this system to a liberal and careful examination, is the obscurity of his situation in the world, which prevented his having any intercourse with his predecessors in the same line of pursuit, and placed their works in a great measure beyond his reach. From this circumstance, the ground-work of his theory is formed of materials which were suggested by casual enquiry and by reflection; and even the names of some of the most eminent critics were unknown to him till their works were put into his hands as objects of curiosity, after his plan had been arranged and his first proposals circulated. The author himself appears to have been sensible of this advantage, for he observes "that an earlier knowledge of these authors would have assisted him in adjusting his arguments and propositions; it would have spared him the labour of some proofs, built upon experiment, and would have been clear gain to him in perspicuity of arrangement; but it would have endangered his attention to the main object; it would have seduced him, by the influence of learning, to borrow or invent systems, when it was his office to develope, authenticate, and confirm materials many ages ago constructed." The author therefore applied his mind to the subject without any preconceived opinion adopted in consequence of reading the works of authors who wrote on similar topics. Some will perhaps be disposed to think that this circumstance is counter-balanced, when they consider that the author appears to belong to the Welsh nation, whose family pride, and claims to extraordinary antiquity, have given occasion to many popular satires. But to such effusions, illiberal in most cases, little attention ought to be paid in considering a philosophical enquiry. A desire to exalt the race to which he peculiarly belongs, is, equally with a love of his native soil, implanted by nature in the breast of every man, and cannot be eradicated without at the same time destroying some of the best affections of the heart. This was perhaps the foundation of that inclination in the author, *for which he could not account*, that disposed him to explore the few remaining traces of the antient Welsh, with their singular doctrines on the origin of speech and the fundamental principles of language. He began to penetrate the import of their mystic oracles on these topics, but dreaded that his ideas might be considered as antiquarian whims rather than an useful discovery, till the same vision presented itself in his occasional researches into the Irish language. He then began to arrange a system upon the origin of speech calculated for the double purpose of representing by symbols both ideas and sounds, which he at first considered as exclusively belonging to the *Celtic house*. But induced by a perpetual jealousy of theoretical delusion and partial experiments, he determined to enlarge the field of his inquiries. The system of Celtic speech he considered as too ingenious to be struck out by the original contrivance of the Celtic race alone, notwithstanding the learning and ingenuity of their Druids, which have been celebrated by ancient writers. He made the experiment upon the languages of Judea, of Greece, and of Rome, and the result impressed upon himself the conviction that his theory was just. The Celtic Druids, from the nature of their institution, he considered as peculiarly calculated to preserve entire any relics of antiquity that might be committed to their care, and on this account their traditions are worthy of attention, especially when supported by collateral circumstances, such as the traditions, customs, and languages of other nations. His knowledge of the Welsh gave the author an opportunity of investigating with considerable advantages the antiquities of the Celts in their several branches; whilst the classical education requisite for his situation facilitated his researches into the languages and manners of ancient nations. These are the advantages possessed by the author. Let us now proceed to consider more particularly the plan of his work and its execution.

The whole work is arranged into three grand divi-

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sions, the first of which consists of sketches on the state and attainments of primitive society, the second treats of the origin of the *Celtæ*, their institution of Druidism, and their pretensions to the knowledge of letters, and the third is an essay on the Celtic language, in which its radical principles are appreciated and compared with primitives and simple terms in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin. Each of these divisions contains several subdivisions.

In his researches respecting the primitive inhabitants of the west of Europe, of Britain and the islands in its neighbourhood, the author was led to examine the progress and attainments of mankind in general, in order to distinguish, if possible, the customs, arts, and stores of knowledge which the *Celtæ* imported into their western settlements, from those which they afterwards acquired by their own diligence, and their intercourse with strangers. The question then was, what guides he could most safely follow in his inquiries into the origin and primitive state of human society. The poets and mythological writers of Greece and Rome have transmitted many interesting particulars concerning the early periods of society, but these are delivered in a language so figurative, and are mixed in such a manner with allegory and fable, that no circumstances taken on their authority alone, can be relied upon. Hence the most learned sages and writers of Greece and Rome, only bewildered themselves in their attempts to explain the traditions and allegories of the poets. Such mythological narrations were, however, the only ancient histories possessed by the Greeks and Romans, and these were so dark and uncertain, that their philosophers were induced to reject them altogether, and frame new theories of their own respecting the original state of mankind. Among these, the theory of the *Epicureans* attracted particular notice, both from its singularity and the acuteness and learning of its supporters, among whom was the celebrated Lucretius. They had observed that wherever the arts and sciences flourished, they had advanced through ages by slow and progressive steps, and accordingly concluded that man had from an indefinite period, creeped and felt his way through various forms of savage life, before he reached the degree of humanity, and learnt to walk erect and to exert his rational powers. The few rays of light respecting early society, preserved by the poets and recognized by more temperate philosophers, were forgotten; the system became popular, and was received as founded in truth, during the most enlightened ages of Greece and Rome. Hence the monstrous tales with which we have been amused, of the progress of that mute, four-legged animal, who having passed by a slow progress, through the monkey and the savage, at length *accidentally* acquired speech and reason, and rendered himself a kind of terrestrial god.* But the author justly observes, that if any traces of authentic information can be obtained, they claim the preference to the best hypothesis that can be devised. Such authentic information he contends we possess in the historical writings of Moses, which serve to explain and confirm many of the allegories and mythological narrations of the ancient poets. The generality, even of those philosophers who reject the history of Moses, and the other books of the Old Testament, as matter of religious faith, admit that they contain the best and most authentic account of the first ages, and therefore the author reasons from these books merely as pieces of authentic history. From the history of Moses we learn that man began to exercise his rational powers the instant he was created, that he soon acquired ideas of property, and began to make considerable improvements in the various arts which in all ages have been peculiar to civilized society. The length to which the lives of the antediluvian inhabitants of the world were extended, would facilitate the progress of improvement in a degree of which we can scarcely form an adequate conception. Moses records only the inventions of one family, *the house of Cain*. But the improvements of the other families that sprung from Adam must have advanced with corresponding rapidity, from which it may safely be concluded, that the old world had attained a high degree of knowledge and civilization. After the flood very few of the arts of the ancient world could remain, but the family of Noah would certainly preserve the general history of the antediluvians, together with the principles of several of their arts, which were communicated to their descendants. The rapid abridgement that took place in the period of human life, would, for a while however, damp the ardour of investigation; and accordingly we find in the book of *Job* (the incidents of which the author considers from many internal circumstances as having happened in the first postdiluvian century,) an appeal to the knowledge of the former age, as recorded by the family of Noah. "For inquire I pray thee of the former age, and prepare thyself for the search of *their* fathers, for we are but of yesterday and know nothing, seeing our days on earth are as a shadow." The author then proceeds to consider the primitive traditions in detail, the religion and morality of the first ages after the flood, their civil arts and sciences, their agriculture, architecture, metallurgy, natural history, computation of time, astronomy and geography.

After some remarks upon the moral and religious institutions of the primitive world, many of which were afterwards revived in the Law of Moses, the author observes, that the first ages certainly appear not to have been addicted to polytheism, though a vague form of expression relative to the universal spirit and his created ministers seems to have been one of the principal causes that afterwards led to the practice. The circumstance that many of the moral and ritual precepts of the Law of Moses are only part of a primitive and universal law revived, which had been in force amongst the descendants of Noah, at the time of the general allotment, explains the cause why so many traces of such a law and such institutions have been found amongst several nations long secluded from each other, and widely dispersed over the face of the earth.—On the borders of Siberia, in China, Japan, Africa, Mexico, and the islands of the Pacific Ocean.

* This theory is supported at this day by many philosophers on the Continent with accumulated absurdities.

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Our author then mentions several instances of the sciences and arts that were known in the primitive ages and transmitted by Noah to his descendants. Their knowledge of agriculture appears from the practice of Noah, Abraham, and Job; their acquaintance with architecture from the building of the ark and of Babel. Some of the descendants of Cain invented metallurgy and the working of brass and iron, and were therefore the first chemists, whilst others were cultivating the fine arts and teaching men to handle the harp and organ, both wind and stringed instruments. Bows of steel and molten mirrors were used immediately after the flood, which shews that the ancient arts were not forgotten. The manner in which the animals put into the ark were classed, and several passages in the book of Job seem to intimate that the primitive ages were also well versed in natural history. The author enters at some length upon the claims of different nations to the invention and improvement of the science of astronomy, and concludes that Noah was well acquainted with the calculation of time by solar revolutions, and that the several nations derived the rudiments of astronomy from their common ancestor. He then proceeds to consider the effects of the deluge, the division of the earth amongst the sons of Noah, and the consequences of Nimrod's rebellion. This rebellion, he observes, was confined to a party which had followed Nimrod, from the several different families, and the effects of the dispersion were that they were all driven into the portions which their separate brethren had occupied according to the previous allotment. The followers of Nimrod were the Titans of the poets, and gave rise to a variety of fables. Some allusion to this division appears in many heathen historians. It may be proper here to observe, that the author appears either to think that the confusion of languages was confined to the followers of Nimrod, or that in fact an absolute change of language never took place and that our common translation is in this point incorrect, as has been contended by several learned Hebraists.

Our author introduces the question, "whether the early ages were acquainted with an alphabet?" He considers picture writing, and hieroglyphical representations amongst any nation as no proof that this nation did not formerly possess the use of an alphabet, for to this day, many of our lower orders of people use something like this mode of writing. From several passages in the history of Moses, in the book of Job and other parts of the Old Testament, he concludes that an alphabet had been formed and used before the flood, and after that period preserved in the families of Noah, till in some instances it was lost from particular causes. The arguments that are drawn from the sacred books, for the high antiquity of the art of writing, are supported by the circumstance, that it appears from profane history, that the most ancient nations in various parts of the world, those which were first settled and most tenacious of their own customs, such as the Chaldeans, the Assyrians, the Egyptians, the Phrygians, the Pelasgi, the Indians and the Furdetani, possessed an alphabet, and several of them regarded the art of writing as coeval with the nation itself, if not with the human race. The author then proceeds to consider the condition of men in primitive society, the division of the Noahidæ, the rebellion of Nimrod and the dispersion of the giants. The memory of these giants, who were constantly held in detestation by all nations, has been preserved in profane, as well as in sacred history. The ancient books of the Hindoos, have preserved the history of the division of the Noahidæ as appears from the following extracts given in the third volume of the Asiatic Researches.

"It is related in the *Padma-Puran* that *Satyarnata*, whose miraculous preservation from a general deluge, is told at length in the *Matsya*, had three sons, the eldest of whom was named *Jyapeti*, or lord of the earth. The others were *Charma* and *Sharma*, which last words are in the vulgar dialects, usually pronounced Cham and Sham, as we frequently hear *Kishn* for *Crishna*. The royal patriarch, for such is his character in the Purans, was particularly fond of *Jyapeti*, to whom he gave all the regions to the north of *Hima-laya*, or the snowy mountains, which extend from sea to sea, and of which Caucasus is a part. To *Sharma* he allotted the countries to the south of these mountains. But he cursed Charma, because when the old monarch was accidentally inebriated with a strong liquor made of fermented rice, Charma laughed, and it was in consequence of his father's imprecation, that he became a slave to the slaves of his brothers."

All nations in their ancient traditions, consider the giants as a distinct race, who were dispersed all over the world, but still retained their characteristic ferocity and lived like savages, by rapine and violence. All nations disclaim the Titans for their own fathers, though many have endeavoured to cast the *odium* of such ancestors on their neighbours. The truth appears to be, that a portion of this *horde* was to be found in every nation, and that they never possessed any country exclusively. A digression is here introduced concerning the primitive language of the world, in the course of which the author contends, that the Hebrew tongue, though undoubtedly much altered by the improvements that took place in society, must retain some connection with the original language. This (the Hebrew) was spoken by Noah, and from him descended to his children, and this may serve to account for the evident connection which every language, however varied by time, situation and circumstance, has been found to possess with the ancient Hebrew tongue. He then returns to the æra of Nimrod's rebellion, and observes that as each of the sons of Noah must have considered his allotment as the possession of his posterity, he would himself have inspected it, and that by these means Britain and Japan might have been partially peopled within a century or two after the deluge. All the families would preserve their original customs and institutions, and hence the similarity that has in these respects been often found amongst nations who never had any intercourse with one another. Several judicious remarks here occur, on the traditions of the different nations, especially that of the Egyptians, and with these the first grand division of the work is concluded.

The second division treats of the origin of the

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Celtæ, their Druids and their pretensions to the knowledge of letters. The ancient Greeks appear to have considered this people alone as the original inhabitants of the western continent, for *Strabo* in dividing the world into four parts, assigns the western division to the Celtæ. In order, therefore, to find out the parentage of the Celtæ, recourse must be had to the original population of Europe, which must be looked for in the tenth chapter of Genesis, the fountain head of universal geography. In the division of the world amongst the Noahidæ, *the isles of the Gentiles*, by which are understood, Europe and the adjacent islands, fell to the lot of *Japheth* and his sons. Two of his descendants are particularly mentioned under whom the whole family may be comprehended, *Javan* and *Gomer*. Javan is well known as the ancestor of the Greeks, and from him the name of Ιωνες was anciently applied to the several branches of that family. We must look for the Celtæ then, amongst the descendants of Gomer, from whom they probably derived one of their names *Cimmerii* (Gommerii,) and Josephus also remarks, that those whom the Greeks called *Gallatæ* or *Celtæ*, were descended from *Gomer*. The author then proceeds to consider the allotments of the three sons of *Gomer*, and from various circumstances concludes, that *Riphath* took possession of Germany, and was the father of the Sarmatians, that Togarmah occupied the countries lying between the Euxine and Caspian seas, and was the father of the European Scythians, Goths or modern Germans, and that *Ashkenaz* possessed the nook lying between the *Ascanian* or Euxine sea, and the Propontis. This nook was evidently, however, too narrow for the eldest branch of the *Noahidæ*, and could only be intended as a halting place in their progress to the west. From the names of the nations found in this part of Asia in former times, as they are recorded in profane history, names which were familiar to the ancient British bards, and from many collateral circumstances, the author concludes, that from the descendants of *Ashkenaz* sprung the original Celtæ of the West, who anciently possessed the whole of Gaul, the islands of Britain, part of Germany and part of Spain. The author here enters upon a short sketch of the origin of the Goths, and their progress in conquering the lands that were before possessed by their brethren the Celtæ. They had probably made several irruptions from Tartary into the north of Germany, but their decided superiority in these regions may be dated from the expedition of their invincible leader *Odin* which happened about 70 years before the Christian æra. The author then proceeds to consider the antiquity of the Druidical Order among the Celtæ, and here he introduces some specimens of Druidical traditions amongst the Welsh.

The following is the account which he gives of the origin of the Druids:—

"The order of Druids under that name does not appear to have been traced or known out of Gaul and the islands of Britain. The name seems to have belonged exclusively to the British order and to have extended only where that order was acknowledged. The original and primitive inhabitants of this island at some remote period of antiquity revised and reformed their national institutes. Their priest or instructor had hitherto been simply named *Cuyz*, or *Gwydd*, as the term is retained by *Taliesin*—'Bum Gwydd yngwarthan.' But it was deemed adviseable to divide the sacred office between the national or superior priest and a subordinate character whose influence was more limited. From henceforth, the former became *Der-wydd*, or *Druid*, which in the language of the people to whom we owe the term is a compound of *Dar*, *Superior*, and *Gwydd*, a priest or inspector: the latter was *Go-wydd* or *Ovyd* a subordinate instructor, and was sometimes called *Syw*, or *Sy-wydd*, names familiar to the bards *Taliesin* and *Aneurin*."

But though the name was local, the religion had a deep root and was extended over a variety of nations. Of this he mentions several instances and proves the connection of the mythology of the Greeks and other civilized nations with the druidical institutions. From different passages in the Grecian history and from some remains of the ancient Welsh, he concludes that the Druids were those Hyperboreans who carried gifts to the temple of Apollo in Greece. From several passages in the Hindoo records it would also appear that the ancient Indians were acquainted with Britain and the adjacent islands, which they describe as *the sacred Islands in the West*, and call one of them *Bretas'stan*. This will account for the many institutions which the Brahmins have derived from the Druids. After some remarks on the first invaders of Great Britain, and the traces which they left behind them of their origin in the countries from which they were obliged to fly, the author observes that the Celtic nation may be regarded as comprising a race of two different characters though of the same family. In the *Welsh*, the *Armoricans*, and the *Cornish*, we recognize the first inhabitants of these countries, with whom Druidism originated: In the *Highlanders* and the *Irish* we find those who forced their way into the settlements of their unresisting brethren, and took possession by force. In tracing the character of the Celtic language amongst the different nations who acknowledged the supremacy of the Druids, the author accounts for the connection that is found between the Irish language and the Chaldaic, Arabic, Persian, Coptic and Phœnician, by supposing that the Irish had arrived at maturity amongst the Japetidæ before they left Asia Minor and Thrace. Those who used the Irish, or more properly speaking, the *Gaelic* language, he tells us, consisted partly of Titans, of Celto-Scythians or of those of Japetidæ who assisted in building the tower of Babel. This supposition is founded, among other grounds, upon this circumstance, that the Gaelic language prevailed for some time in Thrace and a dialect very nearly approaching to it is spoken at this day by some descendants of the people called *Waldenses* among the Alps. General Vallancey upon observing the affinity that prevailed between the Irish or rather Gaelic, and the Eastern languages, inferred that the Irish came originally from the East, but our author perhaps with some probability contends that the Celtæ or *Gomerita* being an important branch of the Noahidæ must have retained a dialect of the patriarchal speech, which may have possessed much analogy to the primeval dialects of Asia, without incurring the imputation of a loan from any one of them. The Celtic is remarkably distinguished by the simplicity of its roots, in which respect it very much

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resembles the Hebrew and other early languages. Comparing the different dialects of the Celtæ, the author appears to think that the Irish, though not within the pale of Druidism completely, is the most perfect copy of the *original* Celtic that now exists. as the Welsh is the most perfect of the druidical or cultivated Celtic.

Although unwilling to interrupt the thread of the author's arguments with any remarks, yet here it is impossible not to observe, that he seems to have been but very ill informed with regard to the extent of the druidical institutions, for monuments of these are to be found in abundance in the Highlands of Scotland, to the language of which the Irish is so closely allied as scarcely to deserve the appellation of a separate dialect. Such monuments are standing proofs that Druidism was as completely established there as in any part of Britain. If therefore the language of one part had been altered materially by the improvements of the Druids, that alteration would most undoubtedly have extended over those other parts of Britain, where the druidical institutions prevailed; and for this reason it is evident that if the language of Wales be removed in any degree from the primitive *Celtic*, the cause is not to be found in the improvement of that language by the Druids.

Our author at some length proceeds to establish by hints from Xenophon, Cæsar, and other classic writers, a probability that the Druids were acquainted with letters. He then considers the national evidence of the Celtic tribes on this topic, the druidical tokens, and the formation of an alphabet upon the principle of general symbols. Here he endeavours to prove that the Druids had retained an alphabet, the letters of which were named from the trees. Each of the trees had certain peculiar qualities, and each letter therefore not only served its purpose in the alphabet, but individually conveyed an idea of those qualities which distinguished the corresponding tree. His arguments on this head, drawn from Celtic sources, as well as from the Roman and Greek classics are striking and ingenious. Following up this idea, he examines the alphabets of other nations, and finds a remarkable coincidence with that of the Celts, especially in the Hebrew language, the alphabet of which seems to have been formed precisely in the same manner as that of the Druids. The similarity of the several alphabets, induced him to examine farther. The resemblance was so striking in every instance, that he maintains with great appearance of probability, that all letters have sprung from one original invention.

The third and last great division of this work, is an essay on the Celtic language, in which a comparison is made between its radical principles and the primitive and simple terms in Hebrew, Greek and Latin. The object which the author has in view in this essay may be given in his own words:

"In the former essay I gave my opinion, supported by the evidence on which it was formed, that an order known by the name of Druids, to the latest period of their establishment preserved a copy of an alphabet, which the earliest of those tribes which had settled in Europe, brought with them from Asia. I also explained the account which those Druids left in Britain, respecting the original and fundamental principles of this alphabet. I added that a similar account is partly recognized by other primitive nations. But the importance of the discovery is not limited only to these facts. It acquires its principal value from the opportunity it affords of illustrating an ancient system in philology, viz. *That each of the elementary sounds in language naturally describes a distinct image or perception of the mind, and that language was originally formed by following nature as the guide, in adapting sounds like these to their several and respective occasions.* That such Druidical symbols, and the series of letters which arose from them, were intended both to support that system and explain its principles in detail, appears by the following testimonies.

"1. *Taliesin* says, with reference to the whole device of the symbols 'the *points* of the *mimic* trees, what do they *whisper* so forcibly, and what *breathings* are in their roots? —These are read by the sages." If nature pointed out the several plants as appropriate symbols of speech and of its elements, if to them she assigned the office and province of composing and of analyzing languages, it is evident that every element of language was understood in those days, to have a distinct character marked and fixed by nature.

"2. *Trees* and *Plants* that are selected as the symbols present obvious and very natural characters: they suggest the same ideas that are marked in the descriptions of the bard.

"3. The names by which these plants, considered as the symbols, are distinguished in the Irish language are calculated for the impression of these ideas in the most forcible manner.

"4. The simple names of the bardic letters or counterfeited sprigs, are amongst the most important, as well as discriminate roots of the Welsh and Irish languages. They are at the head of numerous families, &c. &c.

"5. The application of that system is to be supported by evidence taken from other languages in which no collusion can be suspected.

"6. The names of the Roman letters are terms of known value in the Celtic language. Many also of the Greek, and most of the Hebrew and Chaldaic letters have explicable names, which may be referred with ease to certain verbs, expressing parallel ideas to the names for the corresponding letters and symbols of the Celtæ; a manifest intimation, that one and the same identical system was known and taught not only in Greece or in Italy, but in Syria and Chaldea.

"7. An application of these principles to the radical terms of the Celtic, Latin, Greek and Hebrew languages, is found in most instances truly to define their meaning, so as to ascertain the original principles, from which these languages arose, and prove that the system is not founded on ancient opinion alone, but on truth."

The author lays it down as a first principle, *that we have an original propensity born with us, to express and communicate certain perceptions or ideas, by appropriate sounds: and that such perceptions and sounds have therefore a natural relation between each other.* This principle he explains and defends by a variety of instances drawn from nature, and obviates objections that might be urged against it. With this principle in view he considers the formation of language, and the nature of the primitive tongue. Here he supposes that man when first created, had no language ready formed, but acquired it very rapidly. The nature of his reasoning on this subject is certainly very ingenious, and we had almost said, very convincing, but our limits prevent us from entering upon it in detail. After finishing his discussion on the manner in which language was originally formed, he

concludes with adducing several additional proofs that the Hyperboreans, mentioned by the Greek writers, were no other than the Celtic Druids.

Some of the derivations of words in this work, are in particular instances highly fanciful, principally owing to an attempt of the author to explain words, which the Greek and Roman writers referred to Celtic origin, by one dialect of the Celtic, instead of another with which he was not so well acquainted, but where the proper derivation was obvious. The style too is in many instances antiquated and obscure, so that a perpetual recurrence to the context is in many parts necessary, in order to understand the author's meaning. There also appears a sort of confusion in the arrangement, which often deprives the subject discussed of much of that interest which it would otherwise possess. But these, it must be confessed, are trivial defects and perhaps difficult to be avoided, when we consider this laborious task, which required no less boldness in the undertaking, than perseverance in the execution. This is certainly no half-finished work hastily entered upon and carelessly concluded, but the fruit of much intense thinking and diligent research. In some partial instances, the author's reasoning may perhaps be faulty and his conclusions erroneous, but we believe it will be difficult to overturn the general scope of his arguments, or the principles on which they are founded. Upon the whole, the work may certainly be considered as the most complete and comprehensive view of the origin of the *Celtæ* the original inhabitants of these islands, the origin of their language, its nature and connection with the other languages of the globe, and of the original formation of language in general, that has hitherto appeared, and is entitled to no small share of the public attention, both on account of the curious nature of the subject, and the important information which it contains. II.

Strictures on the Necessity of Inviolably maintaining the Navigation and Colonial System of Great Britain. By Lord Sheffield. *8vo. pp. 65. London,* 1804. *Debrett. 2s. 6d.*

If it be true that every man has his hobby horse, perhaps we ought to shew some indulgence, when we see Lord Sheffield again mounted upon the Navigation laws, even though we should observe him whipping and spurring a little harder, than the condition of his beast seems to justify. His lordship we believe to be a very sincere patriot. His taste for literature does him honour. And the progress which he has made in it, is not only uncommon in circumstances of life similar to his; it is superior even to that of many whose business is learning. We think him therefore entitled to sincere respect. But at the same time we cannot disguise our opinion, that he is not very deeply read in the science of political economy. That is a great whole, of which all the parts must be comprehended, and their mutual connection and dependance seen, before a man is a judge of any one of them. But this is an operation to which Lord Sheffield does not seem to be much accustomed. It appears more congenial to his mind, to conceive strongly the importance of some particular branch of a great whole; and to form a theory from some common facts; from which theory no reasonings drawn from a comprehensive view of the entire subject are able to detach him. Indeed he refuses even so much as a hearing to all such reasonings; and rails at them under the denomination of speculative, which in his vocabulary is equivalent to chimerical, visionary, and useless.

The navigation laws form part of that system of policy, which has been in part adopted in all the countries of modern Europe, of giving encouragement, above all other branches of industry, to foreign trade, as being the chief instrument of bringing wealth into a country, and encreasing its prosperity. This idea was founded upon the opinion which has been proved to be completely absurd, and is now almost universally exploded, that gold and silver is the wealth of a country; and that it can only be obtained in plenty by any country, which has no mines of its own, by a foreign trade, of which the exports are greater than the imports. As far therefore, as the navigation laws tend to encourage foreign trade, above other branches of industry, they are not useful, but injurious, notwithstanding the zealous predilection of Lord Sheffield. Because this extraordinary encouragement withdraws labour and capital from domestic employments. But domestic trade is proved to be far more advantageous to the state than foreign trade.

In fact, however, it is the carrying trade only, the least profitable of all trades, which receives encouragement from the navigation laws. For, as Dr. Smith has well remarked, "the act of navigation is not favourable to foreign commerce, or to the growth of that opulence which can arise from it. The interest of a nation in its commercial relations to foreign nations is, like that of a merchant with regard to the different people with whom he deals, to buy as cheap and to sell as dear as possible. But it will be most likely to buy cheap, when by the most perfect freedom of trade, it encourages all nations to bring to it the goods which it has occasion to purchase; and, for the same reason, it will be most likely to sell dear, when its markets are thus filled with the greatest number of buyers."

The chief provisions of the navigation act are, 1st to prohibit all ships not British from trading to the plantations, or being employed in the coasting trade of Great Britain; 2d. To prohibit a great variety of the most bulky articles of importation from being brought into Great Britain except in British ships, or ships of the country where the goods are produced; and 3dly. To prohibit a great variety of the most bulky articles of importation from being imported even in British vessels from any emporium, as Holland, where the goods may have been brought from the country which produced them, and to compel them to be brought directly from the country where they were produced.

Lord Sheffield conceives that these laws have a two-fold operation. First, they encourage our commerce; and, secondly, they encourage our naval force. And he has the highest opinion of their efficacy in both these respects.

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With regard to trade, except in what relates to the

colonies, these laws are directly and clearly prejudicial, so much is Lord Sheffield mistaken in thinking them highly useful. They have contributed to make us buy all foreign goods dearer, and sell our own goods cheaper to foreign countries than otherwise we should have done; and thus have tended in a double manner to injure foreign trade.

With regard to that part of the navigation laws which restrains the trade to the colonies to British vessels, the question is more difficult. Dr. Smith, the illustrious author of the Wealth of Nations, is of opinion that this restraint has diminished the foreign trade of Great Britain with Europe; that it has contributed to keep up the rate of profit in all the different branches of British trade higher than it naturally would have been; and that it has necessarily subjected the country both to an absolute and to a relative disadvantage in every branch of trade, of which she has not the monopoly. But it is probable that the dependance of the colonies upon the mother country is a good deal connected with the restriction of their commerce; and till the question be determined, how far that dependance is beneficial, or the contrary, to the mother country, the advantage or disadvantage of the exclusive trade cannot be ascertained.

Lord Sheffield is very angry at certain relaxations of the navigation laws, which have lately taken place. And he attributes to this relaxation the increase which has lately been produced in the shipping of America. But that increase has taken place in consequence of the circumstances of America herself; and would not have been prevented by the strictest execution of the navigation laws. He is much alarmed at the decrease of British shipping engaged in the American trade. This has been the effect of the same circumstances in the situation of America. But we have no occasion much to regard it, when the great whole of our shipping has increased in an unexampled manner.

Our naval force is the next cause of Lord Sheffield's admiration of the Navigation laws. He exaggerates the necessity of a great naval force to the security of this country; and he thinks it is certain that this force can only be obtained by means of the navigation laws. But certain difficulties attend a decision even in this case; and ought to prevent it from being altogether so confident as that of our noble author. Perhaps the great stress which we have laid upon the security derived from our navy has not been perfectly wise; and we ought to know, and Europe ought to be made to believe, that we are sufficient for the defence of ourselves, were the sea which divides us from the continent to be dried up in one night. Perhaps we ought to value our naval superiority for the facility with which it enables us to carry the terror of our nation to the doors of our enemies, and to the remotest corners of the world; for its offensive, rather than for its defensive efficacy.

It is by no means certain too, that the repeal of the Navigation laws would in any respect diminish the shipping of Great Britain. In by far the greater part of her present trade, no other nation could maintain a competition with her in cheapness of freight; and her shipping would sustain no diminution, though the ships of all nations were admitted to that trade. And for the few cases in which it might be otherwise, there would be a general increase of trade, from the benefits of perfect freedom, which would afford much more than compensation. Besides this, there is one great branch of trade, as yet unopened, in which there could be no competition with Great Britain, which would be advantageous to her in respects much more numerous and important than the colonial trade; and which might raise and maintain a much greater number of seamen; we mean the fisheries of Great Britain. Let us never fear any want of means to breed seamen, as long as we are surrounded by the ocean; and as long as it teems with riches. How much more valuable, for the defence of Great Britain, are fifty thousand sea-faring men, on the coasts of the island with their boats, than fifty thousand men in a foreign trade.

On account of the general spirit of the navigation laws, and from a view of all the points in which we suppose them to touch the interests of our native country, we are not sorry at the relaxations which have taken place; and we by no means dissuade the adoption, in proper time, of other relaxations. These gradual, are the best repeals of any set of laws which affect extensively the business of a country.

M.

The Reply of a Near Observer to some of the Answerers of the Cursory Remarks. 8vo. *pp.* 102. *London,* 1804. *Hatchard.* 3*s.*

A Letter to Robert Ward. Esq. M. P. occasioned by his Pamphlet, intituled a Review of the Relative Situations of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington. 8vo. *pp.* 94. *London,* 1804. *Ginger.* 3*s.*

These two pamphlets may be very well classed together; because, although their stile and manner is very different, their subject and purpose is the same. Events too which have taken place, since their publication, render them objects of less interest to the public, than they were when we marked them in our List of New Publications as subjects for future consideration. They were worthy of attention at that time as tending to throw light on that state of parties which then existed. Parties have taken a different appearance since; and their present state engrosses our minds, leaving us little desire to inquire into that state which is now no more.

The Near Observer was the person who began the controversy, which has been carried on with so much warmth, respecting the difference between Mr. Addington and Mr. Pitt. He excited great interest by appearing to disclose certain secret transactions between these personages. He was answered by a person on the other side, who pretended to be equally deep in the secret. And the public has long been busy talking about two pamphlets, which really conveyed to them very little information.

The pamphlet whose title stands first at the head of this article is the performance of the author who began this controversy. He does not pretend to discover any more secrets; and by consequence this offspring of his pen ranks with the general herd of ephemeral productions. It is, however, written with

more spirit and elegance than his first performance, and is by no means an unsuccessful answer to many of the assertions, sarcasms, and insinuations of the pamphlet which was said to be written on the side of Mr. Pitt by his own authority. To answer that pamphlet is the chief object of the one which we are now considering. It treats Mr. Pitt with great freedom and severity; and speaks very slightingly of his abilities, integrity, and the measures of his late administration.

Mr. Ward's pamphlet, to which the other performance included in this article is meant for an answer, was written with the same object as the answer to the Cursory Remarks; to defend Mr. Pitt, and to attack Mr. Addington. The object of this answer is to defend Mr. Addington and to attack Mr. Pitt. Many weaknesses in Mr. Ward's pamphlet are successfully exposed. The author, however, only pretends to reason on the facts before the public. And there is nothing either in the novelty or ingenuity of his remarks, which can entitle them to much regard.

In the fate of a political pamphlet much depends upon time. Some months ago these two publications would have been received with much interest. After what has happened, we doubt not they will soon be forgotten. M.

General Review of Men and Measures: occasioned by Remarks of Near and Accurate Observers, Plain Answers, and Replies to Plain Answers, &c. &c. By a more Distant Observer out of the Vortex of Party. 8vo. *pp.* 43. *London*, 1804. *Hatchard.* 1*s.* 6*d.*

This performance is very nearly on the same subject as the former two. It refers to the controversy respecting the quarrel between Mr. Addington and Mr. Pitt. But it is written in so different a stile that it could not with propriety be classed with them. It assumes not the task of defending either Mr. Addington or Mr. Pitt: or rather it undertakes the defence of both. It denies that the pamphlets so full of heat which have been written in vindication of the one, and of the other of these gentlemen, have been written with their concurrence or knowledge, or that either of them would have sanctioned such productions. When the Roman Patricians, he says, assumed the habit of riding about that great city with a numerous retinue, they could pass their political rivals, and enemies, without manifesting hatred, or aggravating each other's wrongs by personal insult. But their servants almost always quarrelled, and produced much disorder, and even bloodshed. Something like this our author thinks has happened in the present case. And while Mr. Pitt and Mr. Addington had no design to make any uproar about their disagreement, a great uproar has been raised by the officious zeal of their followers.

Our author not only condemns the imprudence of this conduct, but expresses his opinion of the total want of foundation for the assertions of these authors respecting particular facts, about which the interest of the public has been so highly excited. He attempts to refute, on these principles, the charges of faithlessness in the Pittites for ceasing to support Mr. Addington; and he attempts to vindicate the Addingtonians from the charge of wanting ability. He often speaks with much good sense; and though with regard to the difference between Messrs. Addington and Pitt, he thinks that more ill has been spoken on both sides than was due; he does not always express himself in terms of commendation, either of Mr. Addington or of Mr. Pitt. M.

A Sermon occasioned by the Death of the late Rev. Dr. Joseph Priestley. Delivered in the Dissenting Chapel in Monkwell-street, on Sunday Evening, April 15, 1804. *By* John Edwards. 8vo. *pp.* 47. *London*, 1804. *Johnson.* 1*s.* 6*d.*

The ground-work of this Sermon is in DAN. xii. 3. *And they that be wise shall shine as the brightness of the firmament, and they that turn many to righteousness as the stars for ever and ever.* The sermon itself contains nothing remarkable, and the author, who has been evidently labouring to produce something fine, seems to think that his purpose might be answered by putting a number of grand questions, the solution of which would be very little to the point, and uttering a quantity of fine words without being very anxious whether they conveyed ideas or not. The object of the discourse, however, if we may hazard a conjecture, is to shew that the most insignificant creature possessed of life, is superior to the noblest productions of inanimate matter, and that man by his powers of reason, and his capacity of improvement is the most dignified creature on the globe. Vice, however, is the bane of man, and he who does most to counteract this pest of society is the greatest benefactor of the human race. This introduces a sketch of the life of Dr. Priestley, and as it is short, we shall transcribe it for the perusal of the reader:—

"Doctor Priestley, was born March 24th 1733, at Bristall-fields-head, near Leeds, in Yorkshire. His parents were pious, and of that persuasion in point of religious sentiment which is termed Calvinistic.

"He was sent for education to the dissenting college at Daventry, in Northamptonshire, which was founded upon the posthumous bounty of a gentleman well known among the dissenters, of the name of Coward, the principal superintendant of which, at that time, was Dr. Ashworth. He was exceedingly beloved on account of his kind, and friendly disposition, by all his fellow students; but his utterance was so rapid and indistinct, that it required some use and the utmost attention to understand what he said, although he most diligently used every method to correct this failing. He was about seventeen years of age when he entered the college, and was not only very well grounded in the Latin and Greek, but also (a thing most desirable in every youth intended for the Christian ministry) he was so much master of the Hebrew language, as to be able to read it with ease, and translate it with correctness.

"After continuing at college five years, he was settled as minister, at Needham-market, in the county of Suffolk.

"At this early period he had begun to discover some of the numerous mistakes into which the learned reformer of Geneva had fallen, in his representations of the evangelical doctrine; and the most perfect

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practice of Christian morals, being accounted by the unenlightened zeal of his orthodox friends, as no atonement for the least heterodoxy of opinion, he soon found it advisable to leave the society at Needham, (for which, however, he always retained the warmest affection) and removing to Namptwich, in Cheshire, he was for some time pastor to a dissenting congregation in that place.

"From Namptwich he removed, in order to become tutor to the dissenting college which then flourished at Warrington in Lancashire.

"He next became pastor to the congregation of Protestant Dissenters, at Mill-hill in Leeds, in the county of York.

"Thence he went to reside with the Marquis of Lansdown, who, while in Italy, had been rendered anxious for his acquaintance from the high renown which the abilities and performances of Dr. Priestley had acquired for him abroad, while as yet he was but little known in his native land. With this skilful and enlightened statesman, who had the honour of being the chief instrument in restoring peace to his suffering country, and indeed to the old and the new worlds, Dr Priestley resided seven years.

"In the year one thousand seven hundred and eighty, he became an inhabitant of Birmingham, but without any other motive of choice, than its affording a proper situation for attending to his philosophical pursuits, in which having no original fortune of his own, he was assisted by a few liberal friends of science, who, (as he has chosen modestly to express it) were pleased to think favourably of him in that respect.

"It was a plan, saith he, suggested by the late Dr. Fothergill, and cheerfully adopted by Sir George Saville, Sir Stephen Theodore Janssen, Mr. Constable, of Burton-Constable, and Dr. Price, all of them it is something remarkable of different religious persuasions, but equally lovers of experimental philosophy, and disinterested promoters of it.

In two administrations proposals were made to assist Dr. Priestley in his scientific researches, by a pension. It was alledged that as his studies had been highly useful to the public, and very expensive to himself, there was much more reason why he should receive this assistance than almost any other person who had ever obtained it. But in both the cases he declined the overture, chusing, as he himself declares, rather to be obliged to generous individuals, notwithstanding some unpleasant circumstances occasionally attending this situation, than add to the burdens of his country.

"In the six years of his tutorship at Warrington, and the seven during which he resided with the Marquis of Lansdown, although he discontinued the exercise of his profession as a Christian minister, yet he never failed to officiate occasionally, when his other avocations afforded him leisure.

"But in the course of his theological studies, which Dr. Priestley had never at any period discontinued, he had been led to adopt opinions materially different from the generality of the Dissenters of that day. And so great was the difference, that he could hardly expect any considerable society of them would soon concur with him.

"He, therefore, at the period of which we are now speaking, had relinquished all thoughts of ever being employed in the Christian ministry, which nevertheless was his original and favourite profession, and decidedly in his opinion the most important, useful, and honourable of all others. All that he in this respect looked for after his becoming an inhabitant of Birmingham, was to be employed as an occasional preacher, in assisting those of his friends whose congregations might not be displeased with his services.

"It was therefore with equal surprize and pleasure, on the late Mr. Hawkes's resignation of his office of minister at the new meeting at Birmingham, that Doctor Priestley received an almost unanimous invitation to succeed him.

"In this situation he continued till July one thousand seven hundred and ninety-one, when he was driven thence, by the most disgraceful riot, that ever happened in this, or, perhaps, all the circumstances being duly considered, in any other country.

"Yes, the broad blot of this infamy must remain to tarnish the annals of the English nation; for history, impartial history must relate, that toward the close of the eighteenth century, many of the most virtuous and useful members of the community of Great Britain were oppressed, and persecuted without sympathy from the multitude and majority of their countrymen. Truth and fact will compel the reluctant historian to place it upon conspicuous record, that a most distinguished individual, no less illustrious for virtue than for science, had his house and laboratory burnt to ashes, his learned labours destroyed, his family dispersed, his name execrated, his very blood thirsted for, in the heart of a country, which he had endeavoured through life to serve in every way that benevolence, science, and uprightness could point out, or a most clear and profound understanding, most various and extensive knowledge, and a most enlightened, active, and penetrating genius could devise.

"If I were to enter into a minute recital of his sufferings on this occasion, I should take up too much of your time. Never, said a gentleman to me, speaking of the moment in which separated from his wife and children, this illustrious fugitive, though seeking personal shelter from the rage of his enemies, expressed neither grief nor anxiety, excepting only on their account—'Never did I see greatness so distressed!'

"Upon the much lamented death of the late reverend Dr. Price, he was invited to become pastor to the congregation of Protestant Dissenters assembling at the Gravel Pit, Hackney, and at the same time delivered Lectures in chemistry at the Dissenting college in that place.

"At length he thought it advisable to cross the Atlantic to North America, where he received the welcome of the late illustrious vindicator and establisher of American freedom, General Washington: and enjoyed to the last the high esteem, and affectionate friendship of the enlightened statesman, who at this time presides at the helm of that new and rising empie.

"During the decline of his life, Dr. Priestley abated nothing of that intellectual activity which was his

distinguishing characteristic through life. '*Faint yet pursuing.*'

"'You do not know,' said he some months before his death, 'how weak I am, but a dying hand has sometimes done execution.' With respect to the concluding scenes of his exemplary life we are informed, and we believe accurately, from a communication in the Philadelphia gazette, which is here copied, 'that, from the time of his illness at Philadelphia, in the year 1801, he never regained his former good state of health. His complaint was constant indigestion, and a difficulty of swallowing food of any kind. But during this period of general debility, he was busily employed in printing his Church History, and the first volume of his Notes on the Scriptures, and in making new and original experiments. During this period, likewise, he wrote his pamphlet of Jesus and Socrates compared, and re-printed his Essay on Phlogiston.

"From about the beginning of November, 1803, to the middle of January, 1804, his complaint grew more serious; yet by judicious medical treatment, and strict attention to diet, he, after some time, seemed, if not gaining strength, at least not getting worse; and his friends fondly hoped that his health would continue to improve as the season advanced. He, however, considered his life as very precarious. Even at this time, besides his miscellaneous reading, which was at all times very extensive, he read through all the works quoted in his 'Comparison of the different Systems of Grecian Philosophers with Christianity;' composed that work, and transcribed the whole of it in less than three months; so that he has left it ready for the press. During this period, he composed, in one day, his Second Reply to Dr. Linn.

"In the last fortnight of January, his fits of indigestion became more alarming, his legs swelled, and his weakness increased. Within two days of his death he became so weak that he could walk but a little way, and that with great difficulty; for some time he found himself unable to speak; but on recovering a little, he told his friends that he had never felt more pleasantly during his whole life-time, than during the time he was unable to speak. He was fully sensible that he had not long to live; yet talked with cheerfulness to all who called on him. In the course of the day, he expressed his thankfulness at being permitted to die quietly, in his family, without pain, and with every convenience and comfort that he could wish for. He dwelt upon the peculiarly happy situation in which it had pleased the Divine Being to place him in life, and the great advantage he had enjoyed in the friendship of some of the best and wisest men of the age in which he lived, and the satisfaction he derived from having led an useful as well as happy life. He this day gave directions about printing the remainder of his notes on Scripture (a work in the completion of which he was much interested), and looked over the first sheet of the third volume, after it was corrected by those who were to attend to its completion, and expressed his satisfaction at the manner of its being executed.

"On Sunday the 5th he was much weaker, but sat up in an arm chair for a few minutes. He desired that John, chap. xi. might be read to him; he stopped the reader at the 45th verse, dwelt for some time on the advantage he had derived from reading the scriptures daily, and recommended this practice, saying, that it would prove a source of the purest pleasuse. We shall all (said he) meet finally; we only require different degrees of discipline suited to our different tempers, to prepare us for final happiness.'—Mr. —— coming into his room, he said—'you see, Sir, I am still living.' Mr. —— observed, 'that he would always live.' 'Yes, I *believe* I *shall*; we shall meet again in another and a better world.' He said this with great animation, laying hold of Mr. ——'s hand in both his own. After evening prayers, when his grand children were brought to his bed side, he spoke to them separately, and exhorted them to continue to love each other, &c. 'I am going (added he) to sleep as well as you, for death is only a good long sound sleep in the grave, and we shall meet again.'

"On Monday morning, the 6th of February, on being asked how he did, he answered in a faint voice, he had no pain, but appeared fainting away gradually. About eight o'clock, he desired to have three pamphlets which had been looked out by his directions the evening before. He then dictated as clearly and distinctly as he had ever done in his life, the additions and alterations which he wished to have made in each. M—— took down the substance of what he said, which was read to him. He observed, 'Sir, you have put in your own language, I wish it to be *mine*.' He then repeated over again, nearly word for word, what he had before said, and when it was transcribed, and read over to him, he said, 'That is right, I have now done.'

"About half an hour after, he desired that he might be removed to a cot. About ten minutes after he was removed to it, he died; but breathed his last so easily, that those who were sitting close to him did not immediately perceive it. He had put his hand to his face which prevented them from observing it.'

"He died without pain at eleven o'clock in the forenoon of the 6th of February, 1804, and would have completed his seventy-first year, had he lived to the 24th of March following."

The Rake and the Misanthrope. A Novel. From the German of Augustus La Fontaine. 2 vols. London.

When an author obtains some reputation by his literary labours, he acquires a sort of right to the notice of criticism. His subsequent publications, whether good, bad, or indifferent, will be read by several; and the reviewer is expected to inform bill public at large what they are to look for in this new the of fare. *The Village Parson*, a former performance of Augustus la Fontaine, attracted some notice as not a bad copy, from a German writer, of our celebrated Vicar of Wakefield. The same author now presents us with another novel, which certainly is not of British origin, nor indeed analogous to the moderate extravagancies of the natives of this country, although some of them have lately made very considerable advances towards effecting a change in the human species.

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The story of the Rake and Misanthrope is not so long as it is complicated. Two old German neighbours, the one a councillor and the other a syndic have the former an only son, and the other an only daughter, whom they design from their infancy for each other. The daughter is brought up with very fine notions, but somewhat romantic; while the son is left, according to his father's principles, to follow without restraint his own inclinations. The young couple are meanwhile kept completely ignorant of their destination for each other, and are educated together as mere friends. One day, however, on the Syndic happening to read a passage from Seneca, relating to matrimony, the cord of love (or the *amatory nerve* as Mr. Godwin would expsess it) in the young man's heart is struck, that of the young lady receives a similar percussion; they instantly proceed together " to a height covered with rocks, called the *Giant's Kitchen*, and place themselves on the edge of a precipice of immeasurable depth;" and here, as it might have been foreseen, the whole secret comes out. The novel is not however at an end; for the young gentleman had been instructed by his father in the perfect freedom of the human will, and the propriety of giving way on all occasions to the bent of one's own inclinations. These principles had rendered the youth eccentric and regardless of the opinions of others; and conscious that his actions would often bear an unfavourable interpretation, his first care is to make his mistress promise that she should never believe him a rascal till he himself informed her he was, which he solemnly engaged to do as soon as he deserved the character. The parents soon afterwards quarrelled, and the lovers were separated. Very bad accounts of Rodolpho's conduct soon began to spread abroad, and Julia, like other mistresses, began to listen to them. In short she became persuaded that Rodolpho was a rascal even although he had not told her so. In consequence of this opinion she becomes betrothed to another, and the lovers are about to be disunited for ever; when the clouds of misapprehension are suddenly removed, all things set in a proper light, the parents reconciled, the lovers married, and the subordinate personages provided with wives, husbands, money, or whatever they stood in need of. For one person, the pretender to Julia, who was moreover a Godwinian philosopher, and a profound swindler into the bargain, there does not occur any immediate provision for life in the circumstances which bring the story to a conclusion: the reader is not however left in uncertainty about his fate, for we are told that he afterwards repented of his principles, became acquainted with an old nobleman, who gave him his daughter, and also prevailed on the Emperor to make him a baron of the empire.

Such is the story of the *Rake and Misanthrope*. The perusal of it afforded us some entertainment; and as M. la Fontaine seems to have adopted for his principle the maxim that " all's well that ends well," we should imagine that this novel may be acceptable enough to readers who are neither disposed to laugh much or cry much, and are not overburthened with agreeable society. Ω.

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List of New Publications from April 16, to May 1, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, TRAVELS, &c.

An Account of the Cape of Good Hope; containing an Historical View of its original Settlement by the Dutch, its Capture by the British in 1795, and the different Policy pursued there by the Dutch and British Governments. Also a Sketch of its Geography, Productions, the Manners and Customs of its Inhabitants, &c. &c. with a View of the Commercial and Political Advantages which might be derived from its possession by Great Britain. By Capt. Robert Percival. Author of An Account of the Island of Ceylon. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 0*s.*

A Sporting Tour through the Northern parts of England, and a great part of Scotland, including Remarks on English and Scottish Landscape, and General Observations on the State of Society and Manners. By Colonel T. Thornton, of Thornville Royal, in Yorkshire. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 15*s.*

POLITICS AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

Two Letters addressed to a Noble Lord, on the Manufactures, Agriculture, and Apparent Prosperity of Scotland; with a few Strictures on the Speculations, Morals, and Manners of the Nineteenth Century. 1*s.* 6*d.*

This author is very much offended with his countrymen, the Scots. The spirit of speculation, he says, carries them away to a most extravagant degree; and has produced the most dangerous effects both in trade and agriculture. They are much more infected also, he says, with the vanity of expence and shew, than their English neighbours, in equal circumstances; and this too is producing very baneful effects, particularly in Edinburgh. There are some pertinent observations amid a great variety of a contrary description.

An Elementary and Practical Treatise on the Landed Property of England; containing the Purchase, the Improvement, and the Management of Landed Estates. By Mr. Marshall, Author of different works on Rural Economy. 4to. (*) 2*l.* 2*s.*

A Narrative, exposing a Variety of Irregular Transactions in one of the Departments of Foreign Corps during the late War. By Mr. James Poole. (*) 1*s.* 6*d.*

An Inquiry into the real Difference between Actual Money, consisting of Gold and Silver, and Paper Money of various Descriptions. Also an Examination into the Constitutions of Banks; and the impossibility of their Combining the two Characters of Bank and Exchequer. By Magens Dorrien Magens, Esq. (*) 2*s.* 6*d.*

Observations on the Causes of Clerical Non-Residence, and on the Act of Parliament lately passed for its Prevention. 2*s.* 6*d.*

This pamphlet conveys a great deal of information on the present state of the clergy in England. It makes many sound, and admirable observations on the residence of the clergy, its importance, the obstructions to it, and the means of obviating them. It is by far the best criticism which has yet appeared on the late act of parliament; and gives a clear and satisfactory view of its great and numerous im-

perfections. With so much to praise in this temperate, and sensible discourse, we were sorry to observe one or two instances of bigotry, very unworthy of the general spirit of the performance.

THEOLOGY.

A Discourse addressed to a Congregation chiefly consisting of such Gentlemen as have Volunteered their Services in Defence of their King and Country. By George Clayton. 1*s.*

The object of this sermon, as expressed in the title, is to consider the duties which we owe to government and the duties which we owe to God. It was addressed to a congregation consisting chiefly of volunteers, and is distinguished for moderation, piety and patriotism.

A Serious Address to the Inhabitants of Bristol, being an Answer to a Pamphlet, on the subject of the Multiplicity of Religious Distinctions which prevail in that City. By Philanthropos. 1*s.* 6*d.*

This is an angry answer to what appears to have been an angry pamphlet, written by a clergyman of the established church, to the inhabitants of Bristol, on the subject of the multiplicity of religious distinctions in that city. The one party seems to have been outrageous against the methodists, the other is equally outrageous against the clergy of the establishment, and both if they had the power, appear to be of a fit temper to propagate their respective opinions by sword and faggot. The author of the present answer points out what he conceives to be a variety of abuses in the church, rails at the conduct of the clergy, especially the bishops, and is in great indignation at the necessity of praying so often for the King. He confesses however, that were he a bishop, a pluralist or a fat rector, he might not be so quick-sighted to these imperfections, which is perhaps a way of conveying a hint, that if any one wishes to shut his mouth, he has only to apply a golden padlock. As it is, however, he thinks that the established church is neither more nor less than "the eldest daughter of that first-born of wickedness, the whore of Babylon, whose old stagnated waters, the more they are stirred, the more putrefaction they emit. The dissenters are afraid of infection and keep at a proper distance!" Such is a specimen of the spirit that characterizes this "answer," and *ab uno disce omnes.* One thing however is clear, which is, that many men have yet to learn, that the ends of Christianity are not to be promoted by arrogant misrepresentations on the one hand, nor by low abuse on the other.

Letters on the Atonement. By Charles Jerram, A.M. 2*s.* 6*d.*

These letters contain an able and elaborate defence of the doctrine of the atonement. The question is first stated with great precision, objections are then answered, and the author proceeds further to support his doctrine by a great variety of passages from Scripture, and makes some general remarks on the manner in which such passages are to be understood. The doctrine is also supported by arguments drawn from the nature of the Jewish sacrifices and priesthood, proved to be consistent with our ideas of fitness, and to be that alone which can reconcile forgiveness of sin with the conduct of a wise and benevolent governor. The work concludes with a recapitulation of the whole, and is followed by various explanatory notes. The pamphlet is of importance, as it condenses the arguments for the doctrine of the atonement, and exhibits many of them in a new point of view.

Sermons, Selected and Abridged chiefly from Minor Authors. By the Rev. Samuel Clapham, Vol. 2. 10*s.*

The plan of selecting the most valuable sermons for the use of families is certainly proper, and may be attended with much advantage. The sermons before us are well-chosen for that purpose, and every family will find them a valuable acquisition.

A Sermon occasioned by the Death of the Rev. Dr. Joseph Priestley. Delivered at the Sunday Evening Lecture in Monkwell-street, April 15. By John Edwards. (see page 542) 1*s.* 6*d.*

POETRY.

The Satires of Decimus Junius Juvenalis, Translated into English Verse. By the Rev. Wm. Heath Marsh, A.M. (*) 7*s.*

The Thespiad. A Poem. With Explanatory Notes, (in Answer to Familiar Epistles, addressed to F. Jones, Esq. on the Present State of the Irish Stage.)

The author of *the Thespiad*, enraged to find the dramatic talents of the performers of the Dublin theatre called in question by some lampooner, writes a reply setting forth the merits of these actors, and of Mr. Jones the manager. The subject might have been interesting at Dublin; but the author comes over to London to print it, because, says he, "since the union we are or ought to be considered as one people," and consequently to have a complete fellow-feeling, and a most distinct perception of the merits and demerits of the actors who amuse our brethren in Dublin, although we never saw or heard of them before. This is indeed the very high stile and perfection of Union; and indeed it would have required such a fellow-feeling to excite in our breasts any interest in the actors of Dublin, described as they are in the poem before us. The lines in praise of Mr. Jones the manager, may give an idea of what the Muse thinks abundantly good enough for his retainers:

"For who, than *Jones*, more hospitably lives?
Or such a gen'rous, social banquet gives?
And sure his theatre, we must allow,
Was ne'er so managed, or so grand as now."

The Poetical Magazine; or, Temple of the Muses. Vol. I. boards. 6*s.*

This is a collection of fugitive pieces of poetry, which may serve very well to amuse a vacant hour, though none of them can claim any great degree of merit, nor title to lasting fame.

NOVELS.

Sherwood Forest; or, Northern Adventures. A Novel, in Three Volumes. By Mrs. Villa-Real Gooch.

This story is the production of an authoress, who has already appeared before the public. It certainly exhibits a greater share of talent than is usual in novel writers, though at the same time it cannot be said to contain any thing very striking or remarkable either in character, sentiment, or description. The authoress in the preface bewails the degeneracy of the age, in suffering those *luminaries* of the world, *the novel-writers*, to labour under the pressure of distress, but consoles herself with reflecting that *Homer*, *Cervantes*, and many of the most distinguished authors ancient and modern, were no less illiberally treated, than those who have inherited their genius, the *modern novel-writers!* Whoever goes in quest of *modesty*, let him keep at a distance from King's-street, Hammersmith.

The Old Wife, and Young Husband. A Novel. By Mrs. Meeke, 3 vols. 12*s.*

This novel is written with more spirit than the generality of those that come from the same pen. The characters are for the most part well drawn, and the work contains nothing unnatural or repugnant to good morals.

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Young Candid and Dr. Pangloss. A Novel. In Three Volumes; being a continuation to Voltaire's justly celebrated CANDID. 3 vols. 12mo. (*) 12*s.*

MISCELLANIES.

The Annual Review, and History of Literature for 1803. Arthur Aikin, Editor. Vol. 2. Royal 8vo. boards. 1*l.* 1*s.*

The Theory and Practice of Brewing. By Michael Combrune, Brewer. A New Edition, corrected and greatly Enlarged by the Author. 8vo. (*) 8*s.*

The Spirit of the Public Journals for 1803. 12mo. 6*s.*

The idea of collecting and preserving the scattered and fugitive pieces of wit and humour which embellish our periodical journals, is certainly a happy one. Such a collection, if executed with judgement, is capable of affording much entertainment. The charm of such pieces of humour is indeed usually in a great measure lost with the recollection of the occasions which gave rise to them; yet a considerable number may be found which may amuse the next generation as well as the present. The preceding volumes of the collection before us have been favourably received by the public; and if some of them have been found less amusing than others, the fault may be owing to the barrenness of the journals as much as to the unequal industry of the compilers. In the present volume there is perhaps too much of *political* witticism; yet how could this have been avoided? What is to be found in the public journals for the last twelve months but the squibs of parties, and the epigrams of Master C——? Much wit must necessarily have been expended in this way, when a ministry have in a great measure been laughed off the treasury bench. Upon the whole, the volume before us may afford several hours amusement to those who can laugh at a joke wherever it is directed. The collection is made with no small share of industry and judgement; and the editor seems to have made the best of the materials afforded him. In justice, however, he should be more careful to attribute each piece he selects to its original source; as in several instances articles are said to be collected from papers where they did not *first* appear.

A Dramatic Synopsis, containing an Essay on the Political and Moral use of the Theatre, involving Remarks on the Dramatic Writers of the present day, and Strictures on the Performers at the two Theatres. 1*s.*

There is something most whimsically pleasant and irresistibly laughable in grave and solemn disquisitions on subjects which usually present to our minds ideas of a very opposite nature. We have often been highly entertained with profound analyses of the component parts of wit and humour; not from these qualities enlightening the disquisition on them, but from its presenting the very antipodes of every thing connected with them. An essay, prefixed to the treatise before us, on the *Political and Moral Use of a Theatre*, by this means afforded us not a little amusement, while the author goes on gravely and circumstantially to recount the importance of the *science* of the stage, and the great talents requisite in its *professors*. The accounts which follow of the dramatic authors of the day, and the actors of both theatres contain some good remarks; but nothing which can present any clear idea to those who have not read the one and seen the other. Most are praised, as usually happens where the criticised are alive and the critic puts his name to the performance.

Two New Dialogues of the Dead.—The first between Handel and Braham; the Second between Johnson and Boswell.—By J. B. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The former of these dialogues originated in a report of the death of Braham. A meeting is supposed between him and Handel in the infernal shades. Handel attacks Braham for *murdering* his Oratorios, by introducing his *cadenzas* and musical capers. The satire in this dialogue is certainly keen, and may afford an useful though a severe lesson to the object against which it is directed. The other dialogue supposed to be between Doctor Johnson and his biographer Boswell, of anecdotic memory, is also written with spirit and discrimination. The subject is the rage of *Pomposo* for being held up as a scarecrow to the world. The characters of each are distinctly marked and well preserved throughout.

The Biter Bit; or, Discoveries discovered in a Pamphlet of certain notable Discoveries, supposed to be contained in a recent work, entitled "The Elements of General Knowledge." By S. Nobody, of King's College, Oxford. 1*s.* 6*d.*

This is an attack conducted with some spirit against a pedantic critic who endeavoured to abuse a work known to the world under the title of "Elements of General Knowledge." The ridiculous mistakes and misrepresentations of the critic are sometimes well pointed out, though at the same time there is often such a confusion in the arrangement, that it is sometimes impossible to ascertain whether the observations are directed against Mr. K. the author of the Elements of General Knowledge, or against the critic. If the critic was a pedant, Mr. *Nobody* appears on several occasions to be hypercritical, and his affectation of wit is perhaps no less disagreeable, than the heaviness of him whom he attacks. But the *fumes* of a certain noted place at Oxford, have not been confined to Mr. K. and his critical commentators!!

Odd Whims and Miscellanies. By Humphry Repton, Esq. Author of Sketches on Landscape Gardening, &c. 2 vols. 12mo. (*) 18*s.*

A Few Observations in Defence of the Scenic Exhibitions at the Royalty Theatre, and on the intolerant Censure of the Drama in general, contained in The Solemn Protest of the Rev. Thomas Thirlwall, M. A. in the name of the Society for the Suppression of Vice. By John Percival Esq. 1*s.* 6*d.*

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Classic.—N° III.

Nunc ab intonsâ capienda myrto
Serta, nunc major sitis, et libendus
Castior amnis. Syl. 7. 10.

MR. EDITOR,

A *dictum* of Quintilian formerly condemned Lucan: a *dictum* of Dr. Warton has in later days condemned not him alone, but Statius, Silius Italicus, Valerius Flaccus, Claudian, and even Juvenal; not to mention several other Roman poets, in whose vindication we may perhaps hereafter exert ourselves. I am an enthusiastic admirer of Lucretius, Catullus and Virgil: but can by no means allow the lapse of half a century to cool all the fires of my imagination, or to direct me whose magisterial words *I* must follow.

Usque adeo nihil est, quod nostra Infantia cœlum
Hausit Aventini? Juv.

Lucan was the companion of my boyish days; and an author cherished amidst the groves of Eton, is not

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perhaps easily relinquished for the more correct taste of an authoritative Scaliger. "I had rather err with Corneille, than speak the truth with Madame Dacier." These are prejudices, but they are the prejudices of feeling.

I have gladly on such a subject varied the monotony of my crude remarks on "The Classical Commentators," although I have reserved those who treat on the authors above-mentioned for particular criticism. —Statius has been also an author for whom I may perhaps have conceived a predilection as a persecuted poet; I pretend not to compare his beauties with those of the more eminent bards, but I contend that he has verses as sublime and as tender as can be produced in Latin strains. It was well said of his Sylvæ by an elegant scholar,

"Statius incultis in floribus horrida carpit
Serta, sed incultis floribus hæret odor;
Illi ultro steriles hortis evellere acanthos,
Urticæ implicitam nec laniare rosam, &c."

This should be the care of his commentator and translator. Without any farther object, than to restore Statius to his place among the most celebrated Roman poets, I will translate Sylvæ vii.

A Lyric Epistle from Statius to his friend Maximus.

My Epick muse no longer stray
'Mid slaughter's gory plains;
Relax thy furious soul to-day,
And deign awhile in lighter play
To sport with Lyric strains;

Thou, Pindar, mighty bard, inspire
My soul, and kind invite
My fingers to thy sacred lyre
If high among the Latian choir
I sang thy Thebes aright.

To Maximus the lessen'd song,
The lessen'd lay is due:
To me, the purer streams among,
The myrtle's unshorn buds belong
To wreathe my crown anew.

Ah! how long shall thee from our sight
Dalmatian hills withhold?
Where Miners plunge 'mid realms of night,
And spy grim Pluto with affright,
Pale as th' uprooted gold.

But me nor neighbouring Baiæ's shore
Allures to soft delay,
Where winds nor rage, nor waters roar,
Nor where Misenus' mountain hoar
O'erlooks the wat'ry way.

The torpid Muse forgets to sing
While thou art distant far:
In vain I call on Thymbra's king,
In vain my Poem strives to bring
Achilles to the war.

'Twas you, who bade my Thebais live,
Who taught me how to blot:
The just corrections how to give,
That I, with Virgil, might survive
The span of human lot.

Yet still we pardon your delay
Attendant on your Son,
Who now have giv'n (O happy day)
Another Maximus, to say
"Thy race shall always run."

The want of children who can bear,
And solace of a wife?
Round such a friend th' impatient heir
Solicits all the Gods by pray'r
To take the dotard's life.

And when the bachelor shall die
No grief shall deck his tomb:
But laughing avarice sit by,
And grudge the flames, which mounting high
His melting bones consume.

Long may thy noble infant spend
The life thyself hast past:
May'st thou in him thyself commend,
And trace, wherein our youthful friend
His grandsire's virtues last.

Thy lisping babe may early pore,
O'er deeds thyself hast done:
How erst on hot Orontes' shore
Th' equestrian standard high you bore
Amidst the battle won.

May know, how erst his grandsire far
'Midst Cæsar's thunders soar'd;
How Sarmatæ in deep despair
Renounced their desultory war
And owned a Roman lord.

But first thy infant son engage
In thy historick parts:
Who measuring back the world's long age
Through Sallust's and through Livy's page
May learn his Father's arts.

CRINITUS.

Lines from Statius and Claudian.

Mr. EDITOR,

I am not aware of any English translation of the beautiful lines in the Sylvæ of Statius, upon Sleep, which, excepting those at the beginning of the third act of the second part of Henry the Fourth, are perhaps unequalled by any other description of the feelings naturally arising in the minds of those who think themselves alone deprived of rest. The famous "Αλλ' ἐμὲ Ἀτρείδην," &c. &c. and the "At non-Phænissa," though more known, do not strike me (though unwilling as unable, to defend my favourite passage upon Sleep against the more general and abler admirers of the above-mentioned noted instances) as more just and beautiful than the 4th of the Sylvæ *of Statius, Book the Fifth:*

"How have I wrong'd thee, Sleep, thou gentlest pow'r
Of Heaven? that I alone at night's dread hour
Still from thy soft embraces am represt,
Nor drink oblivion on thy balmy breast?
Now every flock, and every field is thine,
And seeming slumbers bend the mountain pine;
Hush'd is the tempest's howl, the torrent's roar,
And the smooth wave lies pillow'd on the shore.
But seven sad moons have seen this faded cheek,
And eyes too plainly that their vigils speak;
Aurora hears my plaint at her return,
And sheds her pitying dew-drops as I mourn.
How shall I last? not he, to such a length
E'er watch'd at once with all his body's strength,
The sacred Argus, whose unnumber'd eyes
Would scarce to this eternal care suffice.
And now some happy, some enraptur'd boy,
In the full pride of his permitted joy,

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Holding his dear girl to his panting breast,
Calls thee not, Sleep, nor courts thy worthless rest.
Come thence to me—yet, shed not here thy whole
Ambrosial influence o'er the wretched soul,
To this let happier, easier hearts presume,
Touch *me*, more lightly, with thy passing plume.

Excepting the mythological nonsense of Argus (which I do not profess myself a free translator enough to omit, though I have omitted some further stuff, interrupting, as in all the poems of Statius, Claudian, and the Pharsalia of Lucan,* each in parts, excellent poets, the current of our feelings, about Oeteæ Paphiæque Lampades) I do really think the original of the above, in point of rhythm, expression, and sentiment, a most valuable proof of the existence of poetry, which some pedants deny, after the Augustan age. I subjoin, as another proof of it, a closer translation than the above, from Statius, of some verses of Claudian, concerning an old man at Verona, who had never been out of the suburbs in his whole life. Not endeavouring here either, to render a miserable pun into English, which is a lame and impotent conclusion to what I conceive Claudian has most naturally described, the quiet life of a contented citizen:

"Happy his life, who never past the bounds
In youth or age of his paternal grounds!
Whom the same house on crutches sees, before
That saw him crawling on his native floor.
Whose early cradle, and whose easy chair,
By one fire-side have kept him free from care.
Not him has fortune in her varied strife
Dragg'd thro' the tumults of a public life;
He ne'er has lov'd o'er barbarous realms to roam,
Nor left the quiet habitudes of home.
Not his the merchant's, nor the soldier's fears;
Nor storms, nor wars, nor lawsuits reach his ears;
Unskill'd in business, and the neighbouring town,
He breathes free air, and feels his soul his own;
Counts by his following crops his years increas'd,
But knows no Consul living, nor deceas'd.
His fruits in Autumn, and his flowers in Spring,
Time's welcome marks, both use and beauty bring;
Whether day lights, or darkness shades the plain,
Still *his* horizon is his own domain.
The giant oak he saw with scarce a limb
And the whole forest has grown old with him.
As much an Indian as a Veronese,
Benacus' shores to him are the Red sea's.
Firm in his strength, unconquer'd yet, tho' now
Three generations to their founder bow;
Let others search the farthest East or West—
They may *see* life—*enjoying* it is best.

LONDINENSIS.

Chapter Coffee-house.

Mr. EDITOR,

Looking over the Carmina Quadragesimalia, an exercise performed by the determining Batchelors of Christ Church College, Oxford, every Lent, and which have been collected and published from time to time, one struck me as so applicable to the editor of a certain periodical publication of the present day, and his patron and prompter, that I have transcribed it and added a translation. The edition it is taken from was printed at Glasgow, 1757. I do not know to what paper it alludes, or whether it may not allude to some popular preacher.

It is in affirmation of the Lemma—*an quicquid movetur moveatur ab alio?*

Cinna procax fœdis spargit dicteria chartis
Gnarus plebeium ducere fraude gregem,
Cuncta movent bilem scribentis; judice Cinnâ
Res malè militiæ, res male gesta domi.
Septima quæque dies famoso fœta libello
Urget inexpletum seditionis opus;
Hausit ab hoc docilis vulgus præcepta magistro,
Discit ab hoc fatuos tangere felle sales.
Jam fidum increpitat Cinnâ dictante senatum
Imperiumque audax et nova jura petit.
Miraris mediâ eductus de fæce popelli
Qui norit sociam flectere Cinna gregem?
Non opus hoc stolidi, non hæc facundia Cinnæ,
Artificem Gracchum subtrahe, Cinna tacet.

Skill'd to excite the giddy rabble's rage
With foul abuse lo Cinna loads his page.
At home, abroad, all moves the scribbler's spleen;
Councils and camps with jaundiced eye are seen.
Sedition's work with ceaseless toil he plies,
The weekly libel teems with rancorous lies.
The nauseous draught the docile vulgar drain
And learn with gall their ribbald jests to stain.
Their faith in all who rule while Cinna draws
Boldly they ask new leaders and new laws.
Say do you wonder, one, the people's lee,
Thus blindly led his kindred herd to see?
These are not Cinna's arts; bid Gracchus cease
To move the wires, and Cinna holds his peace.

Y.

* As to the Punic war of Silius Italicus, and the Argonautics of Valerius Flaccus (notwithstanding Mr. Spence) I hold them out of the question.

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° VIII.

Non his juventus orta parentibus
Infecit æquor sanguine. HORACE.

'Twas not the sons of sires like these
That dyed so oft with blood the seas.

THERE is nothing which more strongly marks the humanizing influence of the present system of Manners, than that ready access to the softer enjoyments of peace which is left open in the hearts of many, even of those heroes to whose hands the terrible weapons of warfare are entrusted. In former times the declaration of war was a signal for the return of a general barbarism; and nothing was then thought of but hewing of limbs, sacking of towns, and sharing of plunder. Even in our own age and nation, much of this rude and rough spirit still remains. No sooner does an admiral's pendant begin to wave, than every seaman in his fleet has his whole soul turned to blood and slaughter; and a twelvemonth's blockade of an enemy's port is rendered quite tolerable, by the hope of one day having an opportunity to give the Frenchmen a handsome drubbing. When we turn to our encampments we meet with nearly the same spirit; and one would imagine from the constant occupations both of officers and soldiers that they scarcely ever forgot war was their trade. Some old-fashioned people, with whom I have conversed on the subject, were prejudiced enough to ex-

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press a fervent wish that our soldiers and sailors may never for a moment forget they are so.

In spite of these prejudices, however, civilization is making rapid advances; and I certainly could not fail to be highly delighted, on observing, from the entertainment at a late fashionable party, that a portion at least of our military men devote the greater part of their time to pursuits from which no living souls could apprehend that any such thing as a war at present existed. It will readily be supposed that I allude to a fashionable dramatic resort in the neighbourhood of Tottenham-court-road, where captains recite their own prologues, and plays written by others. The union of soldier and player in the same character has always been observed to mark the highest stage of refinement in a state; and it must be a subject of no small exultation to this country, that we have the prospect of speedily possessing an assortment of captain-players equal to any thing ever known among the promising youths of the prætorian guards at Rome.

It is not without much admiration, that I have contemplated the many excellent effects which must necessarily flow from our young officers employing themselves in play-acting, especially in the present circumstances of the country. It must give the highest satisfaction and confidence to their countrymen, to know that they are become such complete masters of the military art, as to be enabled to devote themselves for weeks and months together, to preparations for dramatic exhibitions. This idea of informing the public with regard to their great progress, must, I presume, have first suggested this species of amusement; for it cannot for a moment be imagined that the officers of his Majesty's guards, unless they were such complete masters of their art as to have nothing further to learn, would squander the time which ought to be dedicated to their improvement, in acquiring the reputation of accomplished mimics.

There is indeed a peculiar greatness of mind, which cannot be sufficiently applauded, in the indifference which these gentlemen shew to the approach of danger. It is not every vulgar soul that can hear the alarm of invasion and cries for protection sounding about his ears: and yet can lay down the sword entrusted to his hands, in order to study cadences, and consult his mirror on the looks and gestures of young Norval.

To people of ordinary talents, one study is generally as much as they can manage; and I have heard officers who had been fifty years in the service, declare a long life was scarcely sufficient to acquire a complete knowledge of tactics. There are also few players of eminence, I believe, who will allow any other profession to be more laborious than their own. How great then, must be the capacities of those spirited youths who love to astonish the world by shewing themselves at once great soldiers and great players! I have not indeed heard that any of them have given immediate indications of eclipsing Marlborough, or superseding John Kemble. One of them it is true made the latter attempt, and has for his enterprize, I understand, been rewarded with a provincial engagement.

There is something in the business of a player, particularly a tragedian, which renders it peculiarly suitable to the character of a soldier. To learn to act the hero and conqueror betimes is certainly an admirable preparation for future wars. I have the most sanguine hopes of yet seeing its good effects detailed in the Gazette: how colonel Garble, observing his men about to give way, addressed them in the words of Rolla with such impressive cadence and gesture, that they returned upon the enemy like tygers, and did not leave a soul of them alive: how captain Tom Tit, being hard pressed by the enemy, harangued them in a speech of his own composing so eloquently that they could not chuse but listen, by which means he delayed their attack till a party came to his succour: in short, how another majestic figure looked and spoke so like a king or a hero, that the enemy stood appalled and aghast, and the Hungarian swords trembled in the dragoons' hands like so many bulrushes. I doubt, indeed, whether it be possible for us, with such a number of thorough bred heroes, ever to lose a battle.

There is one benefit arising from this species of amusement among our officers, which ought to render it an object of public importance with government; I allude to the profound subordination in the army which it is calculated to produce. When a soldier has seen his officer appear in the robes of king Alphonso, with a crown on his head, a sceptre in his hand, and a long robe of state sweeping the ground; is it possible that he should ever afterwards look upon him without an amazing increase of veneration? It is certainly a most salutary thing that a soldier should learn how heroically and triumphantly his officer can overthrow his enemy; 'tis a thing he has probably never seen him do, and probably never may see him do, in real life.

But these benefits will not, it is to be hoped, be confined to the army. Drury-lane and Covent-garden will also partake of the blessings of subordination. The disorders of the Green-room have long been a matter of serious complaint; and managers have pathetically lamented the little deference paid to their authority But when a military corps has once been introduced (and there cannot be a doubt that many of the aspiring youths will be thought worthy of an engagement) an immediate reform will ensue; General Manager will have complete rule over his colonels and captains; and the audience will no longer be humbugged by apologies for sudden illnesses, occasioned by spleen or the vapours. As to the candle-snuffers and scene-shifters, whose negligence so often throws matters into confusion, the officers will no doubt bring from their regiments a sufficient supply of well-drilled corporals and privates to occupy these offices, and obey the word of command to a second.

As the officers of the guards are, many of them, young men of fortune and rank, their example must have the most extensive effects. Unless the marching regiments had usually something else to occupy their attention, we might speedily expect to have the most thriving school of military actors which the world ever saw. It would then be nothing unusual for a regiment, on the arrival of an inspecting officer, to pass the day before him as soldiers, and entertain him at night in the quality of actors. In this happy state of

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things, there is only one circumstance to be regretted; that the poor strolling-players would be entirely superseded in their calling.

The effect which the example of these young gentlemen is likely to have upon the community at large, were observed about a twelvemonth ago, when the celebrated exhibitions at Chatham and elsewhere, so inflamed the ambition of the heroes of Bond-street and Rotten-row, that a competition was resolved upon, and the *Pic-Nics* promised to set Sheridan and Harris at defiance. The public were not however as yet properly prepared for this new improvement: they could not see why the professional actors should have their trade snatched out of their hands by those who had served no regular apprenticeship to it; and not a few husbands and fathers did not much relish the succession of plays, balls, crowded rooms, hot suppers and wines, till a late hour in the morning. The hue and cry was accordingly set up by the newspapers; and the pic-nics were actually written out of countenance, very much to the disgrace of our national refinement. If our young officers, however, persevere in their laudable pursuits, it is not to be doubted that this phenix will again arise from its ashes.

There is one part of the community, and that part whose advocate I always love to be, for whom it is necessary to offer an apology on this occasion. The fair sex have not come forward, as might surely have been expected of them, to second the efforts of our enterprising youths; and our barrack dramas have still been obliged to draw for Queens and Confidantes on the privileged theatres. I have indeed heard it generally urged in their behalf, that this backwardness was not so much to be attributed to their own inclinations; but that there are certain odd people who will not allow their daughters to exhibit their shapes on a stage; and who cannot patiently endure to see their wives languishing even in the chaste embraces of a hero.

To remove the idle scruples of the prejudiced, and to urge forward the national refinement, it may be proper that I should mention the devotion paid to dramatic entertainments by the ancient nations who arrived at the highest pitch of civilization. The Athenians, it is well known, spent the revenues of the state on their theatre; and forgot, amidst the applauses showered on their favourite actors, that the liberties of Greece were threatened, or that such a barbarian as Philip existed. Indeed, had it not been for that hoarse-lunged fellow, Demosthenes, who kindled a barbarous thirst of carnage among them, they might long have continued to enjoy their pleasures; they would have saved many a bloody battle, enjoyed many a delightful play; and if Philip had come at last, he would surely still have left them their theatre.

The Romans were not a whit behind their Grecian preceptors; and after the Emperors had kindly taken upon themselves the cares of government, and left the people nothing to do but to mind their pleasures, knights and senators, as well as officers of the guards, made no scruple of appearing publicly on the stage. The ladies soon followed their example; and even the empresses began to relish the sweets of a dramatic hug. The citizens of Rome forgot every care and danger amidst such laudable pleasures; and while the Pretorian guards were massacring one emperor and setting up another, and the barbarians were threatening to knock at their gates, the stage still flourished, and the pic-nics of Rome were in the highest repute. Even after the Roman empire was confined to the walls of Constantinople, the passion for the theatre and its kindred exhibition the circus was in no degree abated; and the green and blue factions, (in other words, the Circus, and Sadler's-wells,) by turns decided the claims of the candidates for the throne.

It is to be hoped that Great Britain will pay due regard to those illustrious examples set before her; and prove her progress in refinement by turning a play-acting nation. To the spirited young officers, who in defiance of prejudice, have led the way, we all owe the greatest obligations; and they will of course meet on all hands the honour they deserve. If we are destined to become the subjects of Bonaparte, why, we must even submit; but in all events, although he should cut the throats of our other soldiers, he will certainly spare those brilliant youths who have bestowed so much pains in qualifying themselves for his private company of English tragedians. Should they attain this high station, however, I must caution them to omit the poisoning scene in Hamlet, prince of Denmark, as it might cost them a voyage, along with the news-paper writers to Cayenne. I understand that *Venice Preserved* is at present in rehearsal, I suppose to meet the arrival of our conqueror; but I fear a *conspiracy* will be too much for the nerves of his Consular Majesty.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

On the Prerogative of the King to call out under Arms, all the Inhabitants of the Kingdom, in case of Invasion. (Continued.)

WE considered in our last Number, the foundation which is laid in our actual laws, for this claim of power in the crown; and found that there is no such foundation. The question still remains, whether it would be beneficial for such a power to be vested in the crown; and whether, therefore, its exercise should not be permitted, though it is not sanctioned by positive statute.

We shall explain our sentiments on this subject.

In the first place, we think the exercise of such a power would be attended with great and manifold dangers. It gives a king too unlimited a dominion over the lives and fortunes of the people. It is not a slight gift, to convey to him the power of suspending the exercise of the laws, as often as he pleases, and of putting the whole nation under martial law. When the whole people are carried out to oppose an invading enemy, they are not only withdrawn from their families, and occupations, which is hardship enough: they are placed under martial law, "which is built upon no settled principles," as Blackstone says, "but is entirely arbitrary in its decisions;" and thus the lives of the whole people are at once submitted to the absolute will of the reigning prince.

Indeed we cannot conceive that any thing more than such a privilege as this, would be wanting to

enable an enterprizing and ill-designing monarch, to establish a military government, and unlimited despotism; except indeed, armed resistance, (which, if the prince should prove superior, would be called rebellion) should interfere. How easy would it be for a king, by an infamous paction with some neighbouring government, to procure a continual semblance of invasion; and thus to have a pretence for laying the people as often, and keeping them as long as he pleased, under the terrors and miseries of martial law? How easy would it be for him by this expedient, to cut off as many of the people as might be obnoxious to him? Whoever might be suspected of a disposition to resist the progress of arbitrary power could be quickly dispatched. This would be the certain fate in particular of all among the noble and powerful who should be suspected of an attachment to freedom. The unlimited power which this state of things would give the King, of marshalling and ordering the people, would give him peculiar facilities in the work of despotism. In other situations, the people are naturally arranged in their several ranks; and certain individuals, from their place and fortune, possess an independent influence in the community; which a considerable part of them at least, will always be disposed to exert for the good of the community, and in resistance of every attempt against it, whether such an attempt proceed from the King, or from any other quarter. By the exercise of his prerogative, as captain-general of the whole people called out under martial law, the sovereign would have it in his power completely to elude and baffle this salutary controul. He would have it in his power to place every person whom he feared in a subordinate situation, where his efforts could be of little avail. He would assign to the places of power and influence none but the creatures about him, the mean instruments of his gratification. A combination of circumstances may be conceived, which would enable him to continue this forced situation of affairs a very considerable time. To a very considerable degree, therefore, might be confirmed both the degradation of the people of natural consequence in the state, and the power and influence of the minions of the despot; a mighty change might thus be introduced in the affairs of the nation, by the very first essay of the effects of martial law extended to the whole people capable of bearing arms; this change would make the introduction of the same measure still easier a second time, and its effects more powerful; and thus, by no lingering process, might the work of despotism be accomplished.

But without any longer extending our views to the distant consequences of this extraordinary power; it is evident that the exercise of martial law, over the whole people, as often as a prince of vicious inclinations might find a pretence for it in a sham invasion, would convey to him such a power over the dearest interests of every one in the nation, as no people, who have any regard to freedom or happiness, could bear the thought of being subject to. And indeed the power itself of harassing the people by calling them off from their concerns, on which their subsistence depends, to an attendance upon arms, as often as any trifling pretence on the score of invasion might be procured, setting the terrors of martial law out of the question, might be employed to the most pernicious purposes.

We may easily conceive some of the dangerous purposes to which it might be directed. The king together with the power of calling the people to arms in general, must have the discretionary power of selecting what part of the people he thinks fittest to meet the occasion. If he has not this discretionary power, the general power is altogether nugatory and useless; for the whole people can never be called together to one point to resist any opposing force; a sudden emergence does not afford time to dispatch the summons to the whole nation, before part of it is urgently wanted; and to place the whole of a nation, in that state of society and manners which is found at present in Britain, under arms even for a few weeks, would be utterly impossible. The power therefore, of chusing what part should be so placed, and what not, is necessarily connected with that prerogative of the King which is now contended for.

But the power of placing one part of the people under all the hardships of military service and of martial law, and of exempting from them another, gives the King an opportunity and a temptation to gratify his partialities and dislikes, to the utter subversion of justice, and the misery of his whole people. From what has already been said, it is surely not difficult to conceive how easily the pretence of invasion might be made a state engine. Our history, too, affords a considerable number of examples, of the facility with which the pretence of plots, and disaffection, a more delicate instrument, may be made a very powerful state engine. Suppose a King then to have conceived offence against any quarter of his dominions; a quarter which perhaps has opposed with particular spirit his encroachments upon its liberties; how easily might the state engine we are considering be plied against it; and how easily might it be harassed with military duty, and martial law, till it were altogether ruined? A punishment would thus be always in readiness for a county or a borough, which should send to parliament a refractory member; and it would soon be taught to look out for a representative of a more compliant and loyal disposition. A punishment too would always be ready for any individual, who should render himself obnoxious to the court; and he might be sent, not to the galleys, or to Cayenne, or to the Bastille, but to something milder, to arms, and to martial law.

It might happen that a particular district should wish to procure exemption from the hated exercise of this prerogative by a sum of money; and secret contrivances might be procured for effecting the bargain. This practice once begun, it is evident to what an extent it might be carried. Thus a new and most formidable power would be created, by which the prince might effect his despotical purposes. He would possess the means of extorting money from his subjects to an unlimited extent. He would thus be exempted from the controul of parliament, for the supply of his pecuniary wants; and possessing, in the exercise

of martial law, unbounded power over the persons, and lives of the people; he could have no obstacles in his ambitious career.

Men are not, in general, fond of looking at distant and disagreeable consequences. They are not easily brought to attend to them, and to value them at their true worth; and when it requires some exertion to resist the practice or change with which these effects are connected, they are too often, from this unwillingness to consider the end, and from indolence and timidity, induced to permit the introduction of an evil, which afterwards levels them, or their posterity, with the ground. We do not deny that in such a state of society as that to which we are now brought in this country, a prince would in all probability find himself defeated in the nefarious design we have been describing; that is to say, the people being too enlightened not to perceive his object, would make sufficient shew of resistance to terrify him from its prosecution. We do not deny therefore that a prince, from the view of such a consequence as this, would be restrained from making the very worst use of the dangerous and extravagant power implied in the prerogative which we are now considering. But we say, it is possible, that even in such a state of society as that in which we live, the exercise of this prerogative might be so aided by circumstances, as to enable him to establish a firm system of arbitrary power.

We were, from habit, about to say that it would enable him to overthrow the constitution, before we said that it would enable him to establish arbitrary power. But this was inadvertence. Where this prerogative exists there can be no constitution. Where it exists the King has all power. Apprehensions from the spirit of the people may make him afraid to exert it. But it is the fear of resistance in the people, not the bonds of law which can restrain him. For he has it in his power, whenever he pleases, to make a law, the martial, which he can dictate himself.

We are told however, that the exercise of this prerogative is absolutely necessary; and that whatever may be the dangers with which it is attended, we may indeed contrive the most effectual means in our power to prevent their being realized, but we must not think of dispensing with that delegation of power, since the benefits which it brings are of the greatest importance. Of this doctrine too Mr. Pitt is a patron. He declares that the power of calling out all the people to bear arms in case of invasion ought to be lodged in the King; because the King ought to have the power of compelling every man to contribute to the defence of his country; and the King's ministers he says, are awfully responsible for the transactions which take place in that dread period between the suspension of the laws, and the renewal of their exercise.

We doubt not that Mr. Pitt uttered this opinion without having thought very distinctly of the question. Undoubtedly the King ought to have the power of compelling every man to contribute his bodily efforts to the defence of his country. But is it not equally true that the King ought to have the power of compelling every man to contribute his means and possessions to the defence of the state? Is not the property of the inhabitants as necessary to be employed in its defence as their bodily powers? Is there any part of it which on a necessary occasion ought to be withheld? Whenever invasion happens, is there any doubt that all the property necessary to render effectual the efforts of resistance ought to be at command to the value of the last shilling in the kingdom? But do we say, for that reason, that whenever invasion happens, the King's prerogative gives him an uncontrouled power over all the property in the kingdom? Could we bear to hear such a doctrine as this broached. Yet it is as necessary for the King to have the power of obtaining the property which is wanted to resist invasion, as to have the power of obtaining the men, who are requisite for resisting it. It is observable too, that a sudden emergence might render a sudden supply of money as necessary for the service of the state, as a sudden supply of armed men. But have we on that account left the measure of that supply, and the manner of procuring it to the discretion of the King, on any occasion whatever? By no means. For what reason? Because no emergence can be expected to happen when a legal provision for the necessities of the occasion cannot be procured with sufficient celerity; and because the permission to the King of a power to supply himself at his own discretion, would be attended with the most pernicious consequences. In like manner no emergence can be expected, especially when we consider the military force which even in peace is kept up in this country, and the militia whom even the prospect of war enables the King to call out, on which emergence a provision cannot be made by parliament with sufficient celerity for raising men to defend the country; and in this case too a power granted to the King of supplying himself with men at his own discretion would be attended with fatal consequences.

Mr. Pitt tells us that the instruments by which this power might be exercised would be responsible. A fine retribution, truly! Why, the thing to be chiefly dreaded in the exercise of the power we talk of, is that it has a tendency to enable those who exercise it to place themselves above all the fears of responsibility. Mr. Pitt is very fond of this doctrine of responsibility. His constant cry has been, give me plenty of power, and then I will stand upon my responsibility. His agents in Ireland had plenty of power during the reign of martial law, and used it finely. They too stood upon their responsibility. And how did they manage it? They procured an act of indemnity as soon as their martial law was at an end, and buried their responsibility in the ground.

However much Mr. Pitt may like the doctrine of trusting to responsibility, the laws of no well-ordered country like it. And they never trust any thing to responsibility which they can help. It is their first object to prevent the possibility of doing amiss; only the second to punish it after it is done. The thief is not only hanged, if he is caught, but watchmen and guards are appointed to prevent him from stealing. Yet the thief might easily adopt Mr. Pitt's language; and say, why provide locks and bars to your houses? leave me full admission; you know I stand upon my responsibility, and shall be hanged if I take away any

thing. We are afraid we should hardly be more inclined to trust the rogue on account of this oration; but rather should think proper to stand more on our guard, suspecting him of a particular design to rob us.

The people of this country have always been extremely cautious of giving any power over their property not exactly defined by law. They ought not to be less cautious in giving over their persons any power not exactly defined by law. Our sovereigns long strove to obtain the command of our purses; and were defeated with great difficulty. We have no suspicion that the pretension to a power over our persons will be maintained with much violence, or perseverance. But let it not be neglected on that account. It ought to be as openly disavowed as it has been openly advanced.

If the pretence of invasion should be admitted to convey an unlimited power over our persons, we should expect to hear speedily that it conveys a similar power over our properties. Indeed the one power is altogether useless without the other. The ordinary revenue of the state is all appropriated. The King suddenly calls out his people. How are they to be supported? The King must take the means of supporting them, wherever they are to be found. If this is to be the case, we desire to know where our liberties are to be for the future. But if the persons of the people are to be at the disposal of the King, in case of invasion, what reason is there why their property should not be so too? If power over the property be necessary for the defence of the country, property is surely not more sacred than our persons. Yet we have been able to defend our country for these two hundred years without any discretionary power over our property. We have thought, and we have thought truly that the dangers arising from such a power, were much greater than any dangers of invasion. And it ought not to require any words to prove to us that the danger of an unlimited power over our persons is much greater than any dangers of invasion.

Political History from May 1 to May 16.

FOREIGN.

THE BONAPARTE DYNASTY.—The whole attention of the Continent seems at present to be occupied by the incense which Bonaparte is about to offer up to his vanity; it does not deserve the name of ambition. It is a considerable time since the First Consul became quite intoxicated with the idea of imitating Charlemagne, and it is now two years since every art was tried to reconcile the people of France to the title of Emperor of the Gauls. The ridicule thrown upon this scheme by the English Journals, was one great cause of its being given up at that time; and the manner in which they exposed the Consul's vanity and pitiful arts on this occasion was the chief cause of the inveterate antipathy he conceived against them. The present has, however, seemed a favourable opportunity to renew the attempt to assume the title and dignities of Charlemagne. The Consul has at his command an immense army completely sufficient to intimidate the people of France; and the hopes of this army have been raised by the prospect held out to them of the conquest and plunder of Great-Britain.

The late conspiracy seems to have precipitated his resolutions. The alarm of assassination continually haunts him; and he imagines, that if his successor is once named and the sovereign power rendered hereditary in his family, his personal danger will then be diminished, as the conspirators cannot then hope by his single death to destroy the order of things he has established. Perhaps also, from a knowledge of the French character, he expects that the title of Emperor of the Gauls will have the effect of throwing a certain dignity around his person which the discontented will feel a dread to violate. In unison with the wishes of the Consul, his minions throughout France have begun to express their fervent vows that he will deign to consolidate the happiness of the French by establishing the succession hereditary in his family. A Prefect has written a book to prove the propriety of this step, and addresses begin to pour in from the departments. The son of Louis Bonaparte, who married Mademoiselle Beauharnois, is, it is thought, to be declared heir to the empire; and other changes are to be introduced into the government to correspond with the new dignities of the Emperor of the Gauls. The question rendering the succession hereditary has been discussed already in the Tribunate; and Carnot alone has ventured to enter a dissentient voice amidst the acclamations of servility.

DOMESTIC.

WEST INDIA FLEET.—A most severe loss was sustained by our West India trade on the 2d of last month. A large fleet of West India merchantmen, under convoy of the Apollo and Carysfort frigates were overtaken by violent gales off the coast of Portugal; and, a strong current setting in to the eastward, were carried imperceptibly a hundred miles at least out of their course. The Apollo, which led the fleet, having therefore shaped her course to clear Cape Verd on a false reckoning, went on shore on the morning of the 2d, and was followed by seven and thirty vessels of the convoy. The Carysfort, and the remainder fortunately stood off in time to save themselves. Accounts have not yet been received of what number of the crews have been lost; but it is concluded that all the vessels which went on shore were beaten to pieces by the high surf. The ships lost belonged almost exclusively to Glasgow and Liverpool.

THANKS TO THE INDIAN ARMY.—After the expressions which had been thrown out in parliament relative to an inquiry into the causes of the war in India, no small surprise was excited by a motion which Ministers brought forward in both Houses of Parliament on the 3d inst. for a vote of thanks to the army in India, in which Marquis Wellesley was to be included. It was indeed explained that this vote of thanks was only to regard the brilliancy of the military exploits, while the House were at liberty to employ a sort of mental reservation in respect to the justice or injustice of performing these exploits. It is evident that after this question was brought before them, parliament could not do less than vote the thanks required, as a refusal to do so would have been

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an implied censure. The whole blame of indiscretion (if indiscretion it can be called which bears every appearance of design) must therefore fall on the ministers who brought the motion forward. If parliament should on a future occasion discover that Marquis Wellesley's conduct really deserved censure, it will be rather whimsical to punish him for his motives after he has received a vote of thanks for the action.

CHANGE OF MINISTERS.—The powerful efforts made by the parties in opposition have at length compelled Mr. Addington and his friends to resign their stations. The means by which a coalition for this purpose was brought about were no less extraordinary than the issue to which they have led. The Grenville party, finding themselves decidedly excluded from any arrangements which Mr. Addington might make, have all along been his violent opponents. To the party of Mr. Fox more court had been paid, and some of his friends were won over; but it was evident that no thoughts were entertained by the ministry of introducing him into the cabinet. Mr. Pitt had in some degree kept aloof from the contests in parliament; overtures had been made to him to come into power, provided he did not insist upon bringing his friends along with him; and although he refused these, he seems long to have expected that Addington would readily comply with the measures he proposed, and yield him the honour of them in the eyes of the country. Finding, however, that his views were not at all times complied with, and probably growing impatient at his long exclusion from power, he began to give decided symptoms of a wish to overturn the ministry. Such was the state of the leaders of opposition, when a coalition began to be talked of for the purpose of driving ministers from the helm; but so different and even opposite were the principles and views of the several parties, that such a coalition seemed very improbable. The Grenville party, however, in order to bring about this union, began to suggest the expedient of forming a ministry on a broad basis, which should comprehend all the great talents of the country without any regard to the distinctions of party. This idea was so congenial to the mind of Mr. Fox that he entered into it with eagerness, and began to bend the whole force of his talents to accomplish this object. The effects of his keen and pointed eloquence, which scarcely met with any antagonist, were soon visible in the House of Commons; and the Ministry began to droop even while still backed by a large majority. Mr. Pitt did not however seem to act cordially with the coalition: He indeed attacked ministers, but he attacked them on such grounds as the Old Opposition could not coincide with him. Yet he seems at length to have been convinced that his efforts were likely to prove ineffectual; and that the talents of Mr. Fox and the weight of the Grenvilles were necessary to enable him to carry his point. Accordingly he also began to declaim on the necessity of an union of the great talents of the nation; and in the two great minorities which appeared against ministers, Mr. Pitt loudly seconded the motion of Mr. Fox, and Mr. Fox as ardently supported the ideas of Mr. Pitt.—The Ministry now found themselves unequal to contend against such a host of assailants. New motions were announced by the Opposition, and Ministers procured their delay on the ground that they would embarrass certain arrangements which were going forward; these evidently referred to a new administration. In a few days it was known that Mr. Pitt had been applied to by his Majesty to form a ministry, and that he had included in his list both Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville, as well as the friends of these leaders. Such an union of talents, it was conceived, would rouse all the energy of the nation at home, and produce the most salutary effects on our relations with foreign powers. The disinterestedness of Mr. Pitt was talked of with enthusiasm; and his admirers now began to triumph over those who had looked upon his ambition as selfish and confined. In two days, however, it was reported that Mr. Fox's exclusion from administration had been determined on by the highest authority; and that Mr. Pitt was required to form an administration as he pleased, with the exclusion of this single individual. Every eye was now turned on Mr. Pitt: it was evident that no ministry could be formed from which both he and Mr. Fox should be excluded; no sacrifice was therefore demanded from his ambition; yet the highest reputation for public spirit was to be acquired by preferring the union of talents for the service of his country, to the concentration of power in himself. Mr. Pitt however did not long leave the public mind to lose itself in conjectures about the course he should pursue; after some ineffectual representations he consented to the exclusion of Mr. Fox. On learning that his Majesty's opinion was so decidedly against him, Mr. Fox earnestly requested both of the Old and New Opposition that they would accept of any situation in which they might render service to their country, and consider his exclusion as a matter which ought in no degree to influence their conduct. The answer to this request was the same from all parties. The friends of Fox unanimously determined to accept of no place while he was excluded; Lord Grenville, Mr. Windham, and their friends, much to their honour, adopted a similar resolution.

The new Ministry consists of such men as it was possible to procure, after the exclusion of all the talents of the Old and New Opposition. Mr. Pitt resumes his offices; Lord Melville has been appointed to the Admiralty; Lord Hawkesbury is transferred from the Foreign to the Home Department; Lord Harrowby (formerly Dudley Ryder) has the Foreign Affairs; Lord Camden is Secretary for the Colonial and War Departments; Lord Dartmouth to be Lord Chamberlain; and Lord G. Thynne, Comptroller of the Household. The other arrangements have not yet been finally determined on.

The conduct of the Grenville party on this occasion meets with the highest approbation: it has regained them much of that ground which their violent opposition to peace had lost them in the public opinion; but if they yield to the allurements of places and emoluments, they will acquire the character which such a conduct deserves.

It is remarkable that the great Earl of Chatham was placed in nearly the same situation with his son; and was in the same manner duped by an insatiable

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thirst of uncontrouled power and an overweening opinion of his own talents. He imagined that whatever materials he put together, his own vast genius would be sufficient to give them animation and energy. He soon, however, found that his ill-sorted materials (so pleasantly described by Mr. Burke) were utterly incapable of being formed into a manageable machine; and he at last abandoned the fruitless task in disgust and despair. The chagrin at his baffled ambition and tarnished reputation never left his mind; we have yet to learn whether the abilities of his son will be able to stem the torrent which proved too powerful for the father.

It would be unjust to close this account of the change of ministry, without noticing the disinterested conduct of Mr. Addington in quitting his station. No man has had greater difficulties to struggle with; no man has encountered greater opposition; yet no minister ever retired from office with a more unquestioned integrity. It is said that he has refused a title and an establishment for himself and his family. It is certain he retains no other mark of royal favour, than the gift of the house in Richmond-park. If he was unequal to the station he held, we know that it was forced upon him and not of his seeking; nor did he attempt to retain it any longer than he was supported by a large majority of the parliament. Our new prime-minister may excel him in talents: we shall be content if he equal him in integrity.

THE KING'S RECOVERY.—For some days past his Majesty has begun to appear in public; not indeed at the levee, nor the privy-council, nor any of the public places of amusement; but in his carriage in the most public and crowded streets of London, through which he has been able to take an airing in spite of all the obstructions which must necessarily occur. There is no one can feel more sincere pleasure at these proofs of his Majesty's recovery than we do. That he will immediately appear at the levee, and those public places where his presence gives so much joy to his subjects, cannot be doubted; as the fatigue of these must be even less than riding through the crowded streets of London. Some flying reports have been circulated, that his Majesty intends to visit Weymouth before the birth-day: but these rumours must be false, as they would argue the very reverse of our beloved sovereign's complete recovery.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Mr. T. F. Dibdin, A. B. late of St. John's College, Oxford, has just published his *second edition*, (greatly enlarged and corrected) of an "Introduction to the Knowledge of the most rare and valuable editions of the *Greek* and *Latin Classics*, with some account of *Polyglot Bibles*, and the best editions of the *Greek Septuagint* and *Testament*; comprehending also the Scriptores De Re Rustica, Greek romances, Lexicons and Grammars, and complete lists of the Delphin, Variorum, (in quarto and octavo,) Elzevir, and Aldine Classics; to which is added a complete "Index Analyticus."

The following works left in a finished state by the late Dr. Priestley are now in the press.

1. Notes on all the books of Scripture.
2. A Comparison of the Principles of the Grecian Philosophy with those of Revelation.
3. An Alphabetical Index to the Old and New Testament.

It is said that Mr. Belsham is preparing a Life of Dr. Priestley, from materials chiefly written by the Doctor himself.

Dr. Turner has in the press a work, in one volume, octavo, entitled the Principles of the Newtonian Philosophy; or, a Mathematical Demonstration of the Properties of Matter; of the air, heat, cold, light, and its effects; of the properties of the Ocean; rivers, mountains, &c.

The Rev. James Playfair has a work ready for the press, on the Care and Knowledge of Bees, their Management and Natural History; illustrated by eighteen plates. The first part is of a practical nature, treating of the management of bees; the second contains dissections and descriptions of the body of the bee, and queen, and drone, with drawings of the same.

Sir John Sinclair is preparing for the press the third and last volume of his History of the Revenue.

The translation of Klaproth's second volume of Analytical Essays, towards promoting the chemical knowledge of mineral substances, will be speedily published.

The Rev. J. Palmer, B. D. and Classical Tutor of St. John's College, is elected Professor of Arabic, in the University of Cambridge, in the room of the late Rev. D. Carlyle.

THE EMPEROR OF RUSSIA, when an author cannot receive from the booksellers a sum sufficient for their works, makes them a present of what is necessary to defray the expence of the publication. Frequently authors present to him their manuscripts, and if he judges them useful to be published, he has them printed at his own expence, and the works are then sold for the profit of the authors. In this manner Lebedew received 10,000 rubles for printing his travels of thirty years in Europe and Asia. Professor Strachow, the translator of the Travels of Anacharsis, was offered only 1500 rubles for his manuscript by the booksellers of Moscow: he received a present of 6000 rubles from the Emperor, which enabled him to become the publisher himself. Poliathowski, who translated Smith's Wealth of Nations, received 5000 rubles for the same purpose. In the single year 1802, the government expended 160,000 rubles for the publication of new books.

This prince employs several travellers in different parts of Europe, for the purpose of collecting useful knowledge. To each of these a particular department is assigned; establishments for the poor; for the promotion of industry; for the encouragement of the arts, &c.

RUSSIAN THEATRES.—The theatres at Moscow have lately had their number encreased by the addition of a Polish theatre, so that plays will now be acted there in more languages than perhaps ever happened at one place. At present there are open at Moscow four theatres, at each of which the representation is in a different language; Russian, Polish, French, Italian; and a German theatre is soon expected to be added to the number.—An Italian theatre has been erected at Odessa, and the Emperor has granted for its support the yearly sum of 20,000 rubles (about £2,500 sterling.)

PETERSBURG SOCIETY.—A new Russian Society has lately been formed under the title of *The free Society of the Lovers of Literature, Arts, and Sciences.* It owes its origin to the strong ardour for the cultivation of the sciences which has begun to manifest itself in that empire. In the year 1801, six students of the Academy of Petersburg associated together for the sake of prosecuting their studies in common, and soon afterwards they formed a resolution to unite their labours in translating some valuable foreign

works into the Russian language. Since then the Society has increased to thirty members, besides correspondents at Kasan, Tobolsk, Tscherbask, Teflis, and Dorpat. As several artists, pupils of the Imperial Academy of arts, are among its members, it is probable that this Society will also in a high degree contribute to the advancement of the fine arts. *Beccaria on Crimes and Punishments* has been translated by this Society, and printed at the Emperor's expence. *Montesquieu* and several other works are ready for the press. The Society has lately been confirmed by a charter from the Emperor.

UNIVERSITY OF DORPAT.—An account of the state of this Russian seminary has been published. If we can suppose that the salaries of the different professors afford a proper standard for judging of the degree of estimation in which each branch of education is held there, it is a curious document. The professors of theology, medicine, jurisprudence, and philosophy, amounting in all to three and twenty, have each* 2000 rubles per annum: six teachers of languages, 500 rubles each; a fencing-master 900; a drawing master 200; a music-master 400; a dancing-master 400; a swimming-master 100. The whole expence of the University amounts yearly to 126,000 rubles.—The same University has received from the Emperor Alexander 118,000 rubles for the erection of schools, and extending the benefits of education in the German provinces of the Russian empire. The same urdour for the encouragement of learning appears to animate all ranks in the Russian empire. The nobles of the province of Jekaterinoslaw have made a present of 100,000 rubles to the university of Charkow.

COLLEGE AT TOBOLSK IN SIBERIA.—Public schools and a college have been established in this remote and frozen part of the great empire of Russia, and are already in full activity. On the 28th of January last there was a public exhibition in the principal school, before the archbishop of Tobolsk, the Governor-general, and a great many persons of distinction. After the examination of the four principal classes was finished; the examination of the class of the Tartar language was begun. A young man, called Nikanow, delivered a discourse in that language, the object of which was to demonstrate the advantage of using that tongue through all the eastern part of the Russian empire.

COPENHAGEN COLLEGE OF HEALTH.—This College has appointed from among its members a committee to draw up a Danish pharmacopeia. It has also formed some new regulations with regard to the sale of medicines in the apothecaries' shops of Copenhagen.

M. PIAZZI, has published at Palermo a very valuable work; a catalogue of nearly 7000 stars, each observed several times with excellent instruments, calculated and reduced to the year 1800.

SCIENTIFIC.

COUNT RUMFORD has submitted to the National Institute of France, his series of experiments, on the emanation from bodies of heat and cold, an account of which was lately read to the Royal Society of London.

A ROMAN ALTAR was lately found by some labourers who were digging under Adrian's wall, at Tarraby, on the Brompton road, about a mile from Carlisle. The altar is 1 foot 6 inches in height, and seven inches in breadth. The following characters were inscribed upon it.

MART COCM
LEG II AUG
SANCTA—NA
SECUNDINI
D. SOL. SUECV.
RA. ÆLIANIS
CURA—OPRV
FELIX OPTO

* A ruble is about 2s. 6d. sterling.

USE OF GARLIC AGAINST MOLES.—Moles are such enemies to the smell of garlic, that, in order to get rid of these troublesome guests, it is sufficient to introduce a few heads of garlic into their subterraneous walks. It is likewise employed with success against grubs and snails.

NEW PREPARATION OF VINEGAR.—Take a cask made of oak, of a size proportioned to the quantity of vinegar required; this cask must have a bung about an inch and a half from the bottom, for the purpose of drawing off the liquor, but it must be set on one end to perform the operation. Rain or river water only can be used for this preparation; a quantity of either must be put into the cask equal to the quantity of vinegar required.

To thirteen quarts of water add half a pint of brandy, four ounces of tartar of wine, 12 ounces of sugar, and six of yeast. Reduce the tartar and sugar to powder, dissolve it in warm rain-water, adding the yeast, so as to form a thick solution, which, being mixed with the brandy, must be poured into the cask, and the latter must be placed in a warm situation for about six weeks.

Before the cask is bunged up, the water, and other ingredients contained in it, should be shaken together, to mix them as much as possible. Half an hour is sufficient to render the mixture complete, after which it must be left in repose for the time specified. This vinegar, when drawn off into bottles and well-corked, will keep a long time, and is not inferior to any vinegar hitherto known.

METHOD OF PURIFYING CORRUPTED WATER.—M. Deyeux lately made, at the school of Medicine, a public experiment on its filtres for clarifying and purifying waters. A vessel was brought him containing water taken out of the kennel, and another filled from a tub in which carcases had been immersed upwards of three weeks. Having poured them upon his filtres, the water ran off in a few minutes perfectly clear, limpid, without taste or smell, equally bright and inviting as if it had distilled from the rocks.

The filtre used by M. Deyeux was only a large tin funnel containing at the bottom a few pieces of glass, intended merely to support and prevent the pipe of the funnel from being choked by the small pieces of charcoal with which it was about two thirds filled. The charcoal was broken into small pieces of about two lines, or five cubic millimetres; it might even be broken still smaller, provided it was not reduced to powder, which might easily be prevented by passing it through a sieve. The other third part of the funnel was intended for the reception of the water.

NEW PLANET.—A letter from Germany states, that Dr. Olbers has discovered a planet, which, from its immense size, he has called *Hercules*. It is three times the size of *Jupiter*, and goes round the Sun in the space of 211 years, because it is supposed to be 3,047,000,000 of miles from the Sun; it looks to the naked eye like a star of the first magnitude, and is now in the sign *Gemini*. Dr. Olbers observed, on the 8th of December last, that it moved, and, on the 6th of February, that it was a planet, attended by seven satellites, one of which is twice the size of the earth. It is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic, in an angle of 30 degrees. It is in 18 degrees North amplitude; its eccentricity is 1100, and the Sun to an inhabitant of the Earth placed in it, with our powers of vision, would appear no larger than the smallest of the fixed stars.

COMETS.—M. Laurent Regnier, professor of astronomy at Upsal, has published a dissertation *de Mossis Cometarum*.

ASTRONOMER AT THE AGE OF TEN.—Hitherto, says Lalande, in a discourse lately published, we have seen no native of Russia distinguish himself in that country by Astronomy. But I experienced an agreeable surprise, and entertain consoling hopes, when I see young Alexander Oulibisheff, at the age of ten, converse with me on astronomy in a manner I never before witnessed, even in

France, from persons of twenty years of age. He was born at Moscow, on the 27th of Nov. 1798.

THE DEVIATION OF FALLING BODIES.—M. de Laplace has given in the *Bulletin*, a theory of the deviation of falling bodies, in consequence of the experiments of Guglielmini and Henzenberg. The result is, that the deviation ought to be nul towards the south, though M. Guglielmini found it to be three lines. But these experiments are so difficult to be made, and the resistance of the air so little known, that this does not impeach the results of M. Guglielmini.

CLOCK-MAKING.—M. Honorè Ponz, an ingenious clock-maker of Paris, has made an important improvement by adding free-escapements, which by means of *remontoirs* leave no room for the inequalities of *rouage* to affect the motion of the pendulum. He presented a description of it to the Institute on the 12th of December.

GEOMETRY.—The measure of a degree of the earth in Lapland, which has been made by order of the French government, is 57197 toises. That found by Maupertuis, &c. in 1736, was 57405, which is greater by 208 toises. This was suspected. The degree of Lapland was at variance with all theory, and with every other measurement. It gave to the earth too great a flattening; whereas the new degree gives $\frac{1}{313}$, which is not much different from the $\frac{1}{334}$ given by the new meridian of France compared with the degree measured in Peru. The difference in the results of the two measurements are however so great, that the Institute has requested further information from Sweden on the subject.

THE FINE ARTS.—The Danish Sculptor *Thorwaldson*, has completely finished his celebrated bas-relief of Briseis carried off from the tent of Achilles. A young German painter, of the name of Schick, has acquired considerable reputation by a picture he has finished for the Duke of Wirtemberg, representing David playing on the harp.—A sale of some very valuable paintings lately took place at Genoa. A Holy Family by Julio Romano, a mother with her three children by Guercino, a portrait of a woman with her son, by Van Dyck, were sold for 10,000 livres. Two landscapes by Titian, each ten feet wide, brought 15,000 livres, and a small picture by Franceschini 1000.

The last importation of works of art from Italy to France, consisted of two colossal figures of the Nile and the Tiber, and a great number of tombs, basso relievos, inscriptions, and antiques of other kinds, from the Vatican, and the particular collections of Roman Princes. These, it is stated, are to complete the *antique* marbles and plaisters of the *Museum Napoleon*. To these are added specimens of the productions of the *modern* industry of Italy, comprising a most sumptuous chimney-piece and clock-case, composed of every species of fine and valuable marble, and decorated in the highest degree. This is a present from the Sovereign Pontiff to Bonaparte, and is intended to adorn the principal apartment at Malmaison.

THE FINE ARTS.—A picture by Raphael has lately been brought from France to Petersburg. It is reckoned one of the very best productions of this unrivalled artist. It is above two yards in height and half as broad, and painted upon wood, but in excellent preservation. It represents the Virgin Mary sitting, and gazing earnestly with maternal fondness on the child, which reclines on her breast. This picture is accompanied by two others, in which Raphael has represented the same subject, and of which one was formerly in the cabinet of the Duke of Orleans, and the other in the Borghese palace at Rome. The owner of the picture demands for it 10,000 rubles, and has already refused 6,000.

ANTIQUITIES AT ROME.—The digging under the triumphal arch of Septimius Severus has been brought to a conclusion. On the side towards the Capitol, the earth was dug up to the depth of eighteen French feet, until the bases of the pillars of the arch were laid open. In this pit the pavement of the Via Sacra was found in a complete state of preservation. It appears from the pedestals that the number of ornamental pillars amounted to eight. Below the first base, there is another high pedestal as a second base; and this latter rests upon two other high-raised platforms. All the three sides of the pedestals are encircled with bas-reliefs; most of these are in a high state of preservation, they however represent nothing else but barbarians led in chains by the conquerors to whom the arch is dedicated; all of them are but of moderate workmanship and many of them extremely indifferent. The whole is now surrounded with a wall. Among other relics of antiquity have been found various fragments of pillars and pilasters, an Ionic capital hewn out of one stone, and a statue of a female of Greek marble, and from the workmanship, evidently a production of the more flourishing age of the arts.

GREEK FIRE.—It is reported from Munich that Baron d'Aretin, librarian to the Elector of Bavaria, has lately discovered, in the central library of that city, an old Latin manuscript of the 13th century, containing a treatise on the Greek fire, and a receipt for making it, which was thought to be lost; as also the process for making gunpowder followed at present. M. d'Aretin intends immediately, it is said, to publish the treatise, with an historical introduction. To this intelligence we must confess we do not attach much credit.

NATURAL HISTORY.—Gorochow, a merchant of Jakusk, has presented to his Imperial Majesty of Russia, a horn of a most uncommon size. This natural curiosity has been sent to the Academy of Sciences to be placed in their Museum. It deserves to be remarked, that the inhabitants of the district, where the horn was found, believe it to be the talon of a bird named *Kogroskari*.

NEWLY DISCOVERED FISH.—A singular, and we believe hitherto undescribed fish, has been lately caught in the river Mersey. It belongs to the class of *chætodons*, and seems to have escaped the observation of Linnæus, and other naturalists, though they have described 68 species of this genus. These fishes are natives of the Indian and American seas, and this is probably the first of the kind that has been caught in Europe. It is preserved in the Liverpool Museum.

SCANDINAVIAN SOCIETY.—At a meeting of the Scandinavian Society at Copenhagen, the Assessor *Rafn*, delivered an essay on the question, how much meal and bread a certain quantity of grain will produce, and also on the comparative state of baking at London, Paris, and Copenhagen. He maintained that when this branch of industry should be as well understood at Copenhagen as it is at London and Paris, the quantity of wheaten bread yearly consumed at Copenhagen, would be had cheaper by four and a half millions (Danish currency.) In brown bread the loss to the city, he observed, was in the same manner, half a million annually. These inferences were founded on a calculation made in the years 1762 and 1774, by a commission at Copenhagen, appointed to inquire into this subject, and on experiments made at Paris by Cadet de Vaux, and at London by the Philanthropic Society.

THE PLAGUE.—Professor Valli, accompanied by Dr. Pegroni, has left Constantinople on a tour to Natolia and other parts of the Turkish empire in Asia, with a view to make further experiments with regard to the extirpation of the Plague.

VETERINARY INSTITUTIONS.—The Emperor of Russia has caused three veterinary colleges to be erected, at St. Petersburg, Moscow, and Lubny. The professors have

been appointed, and the whole establishments completed. The expence amounts to about 70,000 rubles (about £8,750 sterling) per annum.

MINERALOGY.—Last February the young prince *Sapieha*, a member of the Warsaw Society of the Friends of Science, arrived at Vienna. He had already traversed the eastern side of the Carpathian mountains in search of minerals, and was from Vienna to proceed to the interior mountains of Austria, and afterwards those of Switzerland and Upper Italy; and after exploring the Alps and collecting specimens of their mineralogical treasures, he is to direct his course to mount Caucasus for the same purpose. His indefatigable zeal and profound knowledge of his subject have raised the highest expectations of the result of his researches.—The society of the friends of science at Warsaw last year, sent two of their members, M. *Cortum* and M. *Stacie*, on a tour for mineralogical and physical discoveries to the Carpathian mountains. Not contented with what they have hitherto atchieved, the same gentlemen renew their researches in the same quarter this summer. The whole of ancient Poland is intended to be explored and described with regard to its mineralogical and physical appearances.

POLITICAL.

PROJECTS OF RUSSIA TO CIVILIZE HER ASIATIC SUBJECTS.—This task is undertaken with particular earnestness. These shepherds of the Tartar race are not any cause of fear in the way of conquest. But their predatory habits are very disagreeable to the Russians exposed to them, and prevent the establishment of a regular commerce, between Russia, and the great nations of Asia. Such particularly are the Bukarians and the Kergises, towards Siberia; and the Lesguians in Mount Caucasus. The Bukarians last year plundered a Russian caravan on its passage to China. And since Russia extended her frontiers towards Georgia, she has often been obliged to form military expeditions against the Lesguians. Gentle means are now intended to be used to civilize these wandering tribes; and reconcile them to agricultural pursuits, and a fixed habitation. Such is the tenor of the instructions given to Prince Zizianow who is sent Governor to Georgia. He is directed to enquire if they have been ill-used by the Russians, and provoked to the excesses they have committed; to redress their grievances in such a manner as to convey to them the idea of justice; to distribute land to them; and to study to soften their manners; and give them a taste for labour, and a sedentary life. Various attempts toward the same end were made by Catherine; but unsuccessfully. We may here mention the celebrated emigration of the Calmucs, who dissatisfied with the Russian government, all set out on one day, and at one hour, to escape from their bondage. There is hardly an example of secrecy so admirably preserved; for not a single traitor was found in so considerable a multitude: or of a design pursued with such perseverance; for the fatigue of the horses and men who sunk under the task; the loss which many individuals sustained of all they possessed in the world by the breaking down of the carriages which contained it; this, nor any thing else retarded them in their journey to the desert, and in their return to their ancient wandering life. The Russians sent after them, could never overtake them, and found of the whole horde, only the dead bodies of those whom they had been obliged to leave behind.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—A new periodical work, has appeared at Petersburg, under the title of the Petersburg Imperial Journal of Trade. It is published both in the Russian and German languages. The first Number contains a view of the history of Petersburg, in which the author gives the following account of the present state of that capital and of its trade.

The city contains 7124 houses, and 209,000 inhabitants. The account of the exports was;

In the year 1742	2,479,656 rubles.
1752	4,353,694
1762	5,217,006
1772	6,451,494
1782	11,467,347
1792	22,224,331
1802	30,498,663

ORDER OF THE JESUITS.—This order, after having long been regarded as outcasts and dangerous persons in every kingdom of Europe, have at last obtained, along with every other sect, an asylum in the dominions of Russia. They share like others in the favour and encouragement of the emperor, and may be said to be in a flourishing state, if we cast no look back to their former boundless power and grandeur. The following is an account of their establishments and academies in the Russian dominions:

At Polozk	39 priests,	42 teachers,	24 assistants.
— Dunaberg	12 ———	19 ———	13 ———
— Mohilew	7 ———	2 ———	4 ———
— Mstislavl	8 ———	3 ———	5 ———
— Orscha	11 ———	9 ———	5 ———
— St. Petersburg	10 ———	2 ———	4 ———

The order has besides three establishments called Domiciles, consisting of thirteen priests and a teacher, and the great mission in the government of Saratava is entrusted to the care of ten priests and two assistants. The collective number of the members of the order is 262, of which 118 are priests, 83 teachers, and 61 assistants. The General of the Order is the well-known *Gabriel Gruber*, who entered it in the year 1755, and in 1773 attained the highest rank.

MEMNONITES.—Baron de Bemgsen, military commandant of Lithuania has received orders from his master, the emperor of Russia, to receive with every mark of civility, and friendship, the 150 families of Memnonites, which are expected from Marienbourg and Elbing, and wish to establish themselves in New Russia. That officer is commanded to go to the frontiers, in order to procure to these new inhabitants all the accommodations necessary to enable them to proceed with more convenience to the place of their destination. A sum of 15,000 rubles has even been issued for that purpose.

INSTRUCTION OF THE DEAF AND DUMB.—Dr. *Castberg* has been appointed to visit, at the expence of his Danish Majesty, the most celebrated institutions throughout Europe for the instruction of the Deaf and Dumb, particularly those at Vienna, Genoa and Paris, and to acquire a knowledge of the methods employed by the teachers in these benevolent undertakings. On his arrival at Vienna, the government of Lower Austria, understanding his beneficent views, directed Joseph May, the Director of the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb at Vienna, to give him every possible information with regard to the plan of the Institution, and to make him completely acquainted with the methods employed by the teachers. Dr. Castberg also received at the same place much information from Hn. Gaheis on the plan of a similar one for the instruction of the blind. Hn. Gaheis had two years ago relinquished his public employments as a magistrate of Vienna, for the sake of applying himself to literature and to the perfecting of an institution for the instruction of the blind, which he has long had in contemplation.

FRENCH MISSION TO CHINA.—The French government has resolved to re-establish the mission to China, which has no doubt political as well as scientific purposes in view. One of the ablest astronomers of France has formed the project of accompanying the mission.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

Taylor's Plato. Concluded from page 461.

WE have already delivered, at considerable length, our opinion of the view which Mr. Taylor has exhibited of the Platonic philosophy. We have next to give some account of the translation, with which he has presented us, of the writings of Plato. On this, as he does not appear to have bestowed on it great pains himself, we shall be exempted from the task of being very minute in our criticism.

An English translation had been published before of some part of the writings of Plato. The books concerning the republic, or concerning government, had been translated by Dr. Spens, with considerable exactness, as far as meaning is concerned, but very defectively indeed in regard to elegance, or even purity of style. Of the remaining dialogues, nine, to wit, the first and second Alcibiades, the Greater and Lesser Hippias, the Banquet, (except the speech of Alcibiades) the Philebus, the Meno, the Io, and the Rivals had been translated by Mr. Sydenham. Of this latter gentleman's performance it is little necessary to speak, since it is well known already to every Greek scholar as one of the most successful attempts in the translation of ancient authors which has been made in the English language. It combines, in a very uncommon degree, two properties which it is extremely difficult to unite; a very close, and almost literal adherence to the original,—with purity and even elegance of stile The merit of this translation is very great. It has perhaps rather too much the air of a translation; it is perhaps, with all its merit, English running somewhat too much like Greek. But perhaps it was altogether impossible, without this, to exhibit any thing of the manner of Plato, so unlike that of all other writers. Though it may be doubtful how far it was proper to study this object, to the detriment of the purity of English, whether in the choice or arrangement of the words.

This translation, as well as that of Dr. Spens, suited Mr. Taylor's purpose; and therefore he has adopted both. He tells us indeed, that the one is elegant and the other coarse. But no matter for that. They are both entitled to a place in Mr. Taylor's production. For neither uniformity, nor elegance was any part of his study. One important matter, however, he has carefully attended to. Neither of these gentlemen understood *the sublime theology of Plato*; accordingly they have very often misinterpreted him. That is to say, they have not always given that turn to the words of Plato, which makes them accord with the theory of Mr. Taylor, and the latter Platonists. This shocking error he has, he tells us, been at particular pains to rectify.

Of the difficulty of the task which Mr. Taylor had to execute in translating all the rest of Plato's works we are fully aware. Perhaps no author is more difficult to translate than Plato. The delicacy of the original composition is unrivalled, and disheartens a translator when he finds all his attempts to imitate it fruitless. We have already mentioned the insuperable difficulty which seems to attend the writing of philosophical dialogues in the modern languages. The forms too of address, the expressions of compliment, the phrases intimating assent, doubt, or dissent, are so different in English and in Greek, that there are scarcely any means of reconciling them; and you find it equally ungraceful, whether you adopt the English modes in your translation, or retain the ancient. An instance of this difficulty may be pointed out even in Latin. In the senate of Rome, when an orator rose to speak, he addressed the assembly by the title, *Patres conscripti*. The literal translation of this, Conscript Fathers, sounds but awkwardly in English, and to a mere English reader is hardly intelligible. To avoid this inconvenience, some translators have adopted the correspondent phrase, used in our legislative assembly of nobles, and have translated it, My Lords. This is equally exceptionable; and has something even of a ludicrous effect. There is, in the simple appellations and forms of address employed by the Greeks, something so extremely different from the affected and quaint appellations and forms which we derive from our ancient Gothic manners, that the translator of the ancient dialogues finds himself equally unsuccessful to whichever side he turns. If he adheres to the ancient appellations and forms, his translation appears not to be genuine English; it has a stiff and foreign air; and cannot be read as an English book, without a considerable abatement of pleasure. If, on the other hand, he adopts the modern appellations and forms, their want of adaptation to the characters introduced, their repugnance to what is universally known of the manners of the ancients, strikes and shocks every body.

There is another thing which creates a difficulty of a very peculiar sort in translating the works of Plato. The argument in a great number of the dialogues turns upon the definition of certain general terms; and the whole delicacy and ingenuity of the reasoning very often depends upon the exact coincidence or contrast of certain words to one another. To these words very frequently there are no English words which exactly correspond. It is therefore the most difficult thing in the world to convey not only the spirit and beauty, but even the meaning, in such arguments as these.

The greater number of these difficulties Mr. Taylor has never attempted to overcome. He avowedly renounces the task of exhibiting in English any specimen of the elegance which distinguishes the Greek of

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Plato. "If my translation," says he, in his introduction, "had been made with an eye to the judgement of the many, it would have been necessary to apologize for its literal exactness. Had I been anxious to gratify false taste with respect to composition, I should doubtless have attended less to the precise meaning of the original, have omitted almost all connective particles, have divided long periods into a number of short ones, and branched out the strong and deep river of Plato's language, into smooth-gliding, shallow, and feeble streams;" "but," adds he, with his usual modesty, "as the present work was composed with the hope indeed of benefiting all, but with an eye to the criticism solely of men of elevated souls, I have endeavoured not to lose a word of the original; and yet at the same time have attempted to give the translation as much elegance as such verbal accuracy can be supposed capable of admitting." A person, however, who writes with an eye to the criticism solely of men of elevated souls, ought to have known that in a translation, verbal accuracy and elegance are two things altogether incompatible. Where the genius of one language is so different from that of another as English is from Greek, to render the one word for word into the other is to sacrifice not only elegance, but the language itself. In fact literal exactness in a translation is a thing absurd to be attempted; and even a school-boy in his exercise must depart from it. The arrangement of an author's words is part of his stile, as well as the words themselves. Mr. Taylor, however, does not propose for the gratification of the men of elevated souls, to adhere in his English to the arrangement of the words in Greek. Yet this would be just as reasonable as the resolution to translate every FOR and BUT, for which he gives himself so much credit.

As it is therefore utterly impossible to translate any author literally, all the question is only about the more or the less. When a translation is made for assisting the learner in acquiring the knowledge of a language, the more strictly it corresponds to the original, both in the words and in their arrangement, provided it is intelligible, so much the better. But when a translation is intended to be read, without any reference to the original; to be read, as a work in the language in which the translation is made; undoubtedly it ought to be that language in purity: pure English, if the translation is in English; pure French, if it is in French; and whatever departure from the original is necessary to effect this end, is right, and is necessary. If it be according to the genius of the original to be formed into long sentences, and that of the language into which the translation is made to be formed into short; it will often be proper to break down the long sentences of the original. If it be according to the genius of the original to have a great many particles, and connecting words, and of the language of the translation to use but few; a great many of the connectives of the original it will be necessary to omit. And all this will not only be consistent with good taste, but indispensible in order to comply with its laws. Now both of these cases hold very strongly in regard to Greek and English. The inflections of the words in Greek allow a much greater number of them to be connected together in one sentence, than is possible in English, a language almost entirely deprived of inflection; and a concatenation of words in Greek may be often productive, in a very high degree, both of energy and of elegance, which would be destructive, not only of energy and elegance, but even of perspicuity, in English. In the next place, of all languages in the world, the Greek abounds most in particles and connecting words; and all Greek authors use them very much. The English language on the other hand, is very sparingly supplied with them; and it has been the practice of all the best writers in that language to use them rarely; thus it has become the genius of the language not to be greatly loaded with connectives; and any attempt to introduce them in multitudes appears unnatural and awkward. It by no means, therefore, appears to have been the consummation of wisdom in Mr. Taylor to set out with a resolution to adhere to "literal exactness," in his translation; not "to divide long periods sometimes into short ones;" and not to omit connective particles. He has contrived by those means to render his translation a piece of as barbarous English as there is any occasion for. Were any Englishmen to speak, and converse together in the language employed by Mr. Taylor, (and the dialogues of Plato are only private conversations, and their stile, however exquisite, and at times however elevated, is yet strictly that of conversation), they would be objects of ineffable ridicule. Is this then to exhibit Plato in an English dress? Is this to exhibit Plato speaking as Plato would have spoken, had he been an Englishman? Is this broken English, this foreign jargon, the language Plato would have used had he addressed his writings to us, as his countrymen? It would not be more absurd, supposing Plato were alive among us, to imagine that designing to wear a coat of our fashion, not robes of the Grecian form, he would insist on wearing the coat, not put on as we use it, with the arms in the sleeves, but wrapt about the shoulders like the Grecian cloak. The Grecian robe was no doubt a more elegant dress than our coat; but our coat is certainly much more elegant worn in the manner which suits its make, than in the manner which suited the make of the Grecian robe. Thus also our language is much more elegant, composed in the manner which suits its own genius, than in that which suits the genius of the Grecian language.

It is obviously necessary to the translator to be skilled in both the languages about which he is concerned; and in particular to be a master of all the graces, and elegances of the language into which the translation is made. With regard to English, we think it will be perfectly evident from the specimens of Mr. Taylor's workmanship, which we exhibited in a former Number, that he is entirely unacquainted with the nature and spirit of that language; not to speak of its graces and elegances. With regard to these we should suppose that even Mr. Taylor's own pretensions are not very great. If they are, he deceives himself no less wofully in this case than he does in that of his philosophical acquirements. Grace and elegance do not indeed seem to be Mr. Taylor's

element. It is not from him that the delicacies of English composition are to be expected. His stile is clumsy and coarse, not only in his translations, but in his original performances. It has not even splendid vices. It is heavy, awkward, and affected. But if a man cannot write good English, he is a very unfit person to translate Plato. And we may venture to predict that Taylor's translation will be very little read.

Beside its inelegance, it is not perspicuous. Like every translation of Plato, which we have seen, the meaning was to us much harder to make out in the translation than in the original; and, without consulting the original, it must, in many places, be altogether unintelligible. Wherever there is any thing, either very intricate, or very abstract in the argument, the translation is so unskilfully managed that it is always obscure; though of all authors, perhaps, Plato himself states an abstract argument with the greatest clearness. One cause of this obscurity is the absurdity of the words which Mr. Taylor often takes upon him to make. We observed before, that one of the difficulties which occurred in translating Plato is the want of words exactly answering to the abstract terms on which the argument often turns. Mr. Taylor is never at a loss on these occasions. He attempts not to overcome the difficulty by address. He creates a word to answer the demand, which is just as intelligible to the English reader, as if he had given the Greek word untranslated. We may illustrate this by an instance. The Greek word κίνησις comprehends the meaning of both the English words, *motion* and *change*. In the Theætetus it is found necessary to define this word. And Socrates proceeds thus;

SOCRATES. It appears to me that this inquiry should begin with the consideration of motion (κινήσεως,) to ascertain what it is the philosophers of whom we are speaking mean, when they say that all things are in motion; whether they suppose that there is only one species of motion, or, as appears to me, that there are two. "Tell me therefore" (we now use the translation of Mr. Taylor) "do you say a thing is moved when it changes one place for another, or is turned round in the same place?

THEODORUS. "I do.

SOC. "Let this therefore be one species.—But when any thing (abiding in the same place) becomes old, or from being white becomes black, or from being soft hard, or is changed by any other internal change, may not this be deservedly called another species of motion (κινήσεως)?

THEO. "It appears so to me.

SOC. "It is necessary therefore, that there should be these two species of motion, viz. *alliation*, or internal change, and *lation*."

What words are these, *alliation* and *lation*? To what language do they belong? In what respect are they more intelligible to the English reader, than the Greek words αλλοίωσις and περιφορά, in the place of which they are put? Is a Babylonish dialect of this sort a translation into English?

The translation of this last sentence is bad in another respect. The Greek is this;

Ἀναγκαῖον μὲν οὖν. Δύω δὴ λέγω τούτω εἴδη κινήσεως,—αλλοιωσιν, τὴν δὲ περιφοραν.

Socrates had just asked Theodorus, if he did not think there was a second species of motion; when a body does not change its place, but receives some change in itself. And Theodorus had answered, it appears so to me. "Αναγκαιον μὲν οὖν, says Socrates. "Truly it is necessary it should." "I then state" continues he, "that there are two species of motion, 1st. change, and 2d motion, properly so called." Instead of making the Αναγκαιον μὲν οὖν refer to what precedes it, Mr. Taylor makes it refer to what follows it; in which case the words of Plato will not make syntax. And then he gives a translation which renders in a certain gross manner the meaning, but destroys all the propriety and remarkable pointedness of Plato's expression.

There is a great number of inaccuracies of this sort in Mr. Taylor's translation; a much greater number, indeed, than from his reputation as a Greek scholar we could have believed, before we examined his performance. And these, by destroying the pointedness and propriety of the expressions, are often very injurious to perspicuity. We shall select a few more instances from that Dialogue, which we have already mentioned, the Theætetus; and from these the reader may form a judgement respecting the whole.

Very near the beginning of the dialogue a person of the name of Euclid mentioned to his companion a discourse of Socrates, which he said he could relate. "True," says his companion, "I have heard you say so before; και μέντοι αει μέλλων κελεύσειν ἐπιδεῖξαι, διατέτριφα δευρο; and having always intended to ask you to relate it to me, *I have put it off until now*. These words Mr. Taylor translates thus; "and in consequence of always desiring you to relate this discourse *I am come hither*;" as if διατριβω ever signified to *come*. But it exactly answers to the latin verb *tero*; and every school-boy knows how common a phrase *terere tempus* is, to signify putting time off, procrastinating. The Latin adverb too, which corresponds to δευρο, refers often to time, as the phrase *huc temporis* sufficiently proves; and there can be no doubt that δευρο does the same thing. Besides, "I have put off until now" exactly answers to the context; but it by no means appears that the person who uses the words had come to Athens on purpose to ask Euclid to relate to him this discourse. This is a very gross blunder.

Even of the following simple sentence he has mistaken the meaning. Socrates enquiring the character of Theætetus asks, Ἦ καὶ ἀστρονομικὸς, και λογιστικος τε και μουσικὸς, και ὅσα παιδείας ἔχεται;" "Is he acquainted with astronomy, logic, and music, and such other disciplines as follow these," says Mr. Taylor, p. 10, most absurdly: he should have said, "and the other things which belong to education."

After settling the preliminaries of a discussion, Socrates says Ὥρα τοινυν, ω φίλε Θεαίτητε, σοὶ μὲν ἐπιδεικνυναι, εμοι δε σκοπεισθαι. "It is time then, Theætetus, for you to shew your opinions, and for me to examine them." Mr. Taylor has mistaken the word ὥρα for the imperative of the verb ὁραω, to see; which is neither spelt the same way, nor makes syntax with the words which follow. His translation, p. 10, is, "Take notice, therefore, O friend Theætetus, it is

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your business to evince, and mine to consider;" in which it is observable too that the import of the verb επιδεικνυναι is mistaken.

The persons with whom Socrates was discoursing had made some answers which pleased him, and he replies, Ἄριστα γ' ἀνθρώπων, ὦ παιδες, which Mr. Taylor, p. 14, translates, "Best of men, O boys;" an expression absolutely ridiculous. It is truly extraordinary that Mr. Taylor should not know that "αριστα ανθρωπων" is an idiom, which means nothing more than "very well," "excellently," "admirably." Mr. Taylor, if we may judge by this specimen, would have translated *minime gentium*, "least of nations." The expression, "O boys," too is improper, since one of the two persons whom Socrates was addressing was a very old man. The word παις in Greek is used as a friendly or endearing term to persons of all ages. even as *enfant* is in French; but we do not use the word boy in that manner; and therefore the translation ought to have been different.

Socrates is endeavouring to persuade Theætetus to enter boldly upon a certain discussion; and says to him; "Have courage, and believe that what was now said deserves investigation. And earnestly endeavour (προθυμηθητι) by all means, to understand the nature of knowledge."—"With regard to earnest endeavour, O Socrates," says Theætetus, "it shall appear." Προθυμιας μεν ἕνεκεν, ὦ Σώκρατες, φανειται. This Mr. Taylor most strangely translates, p. 14. "It appears we should do so, O Socrates, for the sake of alacrity;" in which words the man that finds out a meaning must be wiser than we are.

The celebrated passage in this dialogue, where Socrates compares his treatment of the mind to the art of midwifery, is thus translated by our author, and will afford a sufficient specimen of the elegance of his work.

Theæ. But know, O Socrates, that I have often endeavoured to accomplish this, on hearing the questions which are discussed by you. But I can neither persuade myself that I can say any thing sufficient on this occasion, nor that I can hear any one discoursing as you advise; nor yet am I able to desist from investigation.

"Soc. You are tormented with the pangs of labour, friend Theætetus, not because you are empty, but because you are full.

"Theæ. I do not know, Socrates: but I tell you what I suffer.

"Soc. O ridiculous youth, have you not heard that I am the son of the generous, and at the same time severe, midwife Phænarete?

"Theæ. I have heard this.

"Soc. And have you also heard that I study the same art?

"Theæ. By no means.

"Soc. Know, however, that it is so: but do not betray me to others. For they are ignorant, my friend, that I possess this art; and in consequence of being ignorant of this, they do not assert this respecting me, but they say that I am a most absurd man, and that I cause men to doubt. Or have you not heard this?

"Theæ. I have.

"Soc. Shall I tell you the reason of this?

"Theæ. By all means.

"Soc. Conceive every thing pertaining to midwives, and you will easily understand what I mean. For you know, that none of them deliver others, while they yet conceive and bring forth themselves, but when they are no longer capable of conceiving.

Theæ. Entirely so.

Soc. But they say that Diana is the cause of this; who being herself a virgin takes care of births. She does not, therefore, permit those that are barren to be midwives, because human nature is too imbecil to undertake an art in which it is unexperienced: but she orders those to exercise this profession, who from their age are incapable of bearing children; by this honouring the similitude of herself.

"Theæ. It is likely.

"Soc. And is not this also probable and necessary, that those who are pregnant, or not, should be more known by midwives than by others?

"Theæ. Entirely so.

"Soc. Midwives, likewise, by medicaments and enchantments, are able to excite and alleviate the pangs of parturition, to deliver those that bring forth with difficulty, and procure a miscarriage where the child appears to be abortive.

"Theæ. It is so.

"Soc. Have you not also heard this concerning them, that they are most skilful bride-maids, as being perfectly wise, with respect to knowing what kind of man and woman ought to be united together, in order to produce the most excellent children?

"Theæ. I did not altogether know this.

"Soc. But you know that they glory in this more than in cutting the navel. For do you think it belongs to the same, or to a different art, to take care of and collect the fruits of the earth, and again, to know in what ground any plant or seed ought to be sown?

"Theæ. To the same art?

"Soc. But in women, my friend, do you think the art pertaining to the care of offspring differs from that of collecting them?

"Theæ. It is not likely that it does.

"Soc. It is not. But through the unjust and absurd conjunction of man and woman, which is called bawdry, midwives as being chaste avoid acting in the capacity of bride-maids, fearing lest by this mean they should be branded with the appellation of bawds, since it alone belongs to legitimate midwives to act as bride-maids with rectitude.

"Theæ. It appears so.

"Soc. Such then is the office of midwives; but it is less arduous than the part which I have to act. For it does not happen to women, that they sometimes bring forth images, and sometimes realities. But this is a thing not easy to discriminate. For, if it did happen, to distinguish what was true from what was false would be to midwives the greatest and the most beautiful of all works. Or do you not think it would?

"Theæ. I do.

"Soc. But to my art other things belong which pertain to delivery; but it differs in this, that it delivers men and not women, and that it considers their souls as parturient and not their bodies."

Socrates says to a conceited sophist, with whom he was conversing:

"Soc. Φιλολόγος γ' εἶ ἀτεχνῶς καὶ χρηστὸς, ὦ Θεόδωρε, ὅτι με οἴει λόγων τινὰ εἶναι θύλακον, καὶ ῥαδίως ἐξελόντα ἐρεῖν ὡς οὐκ αὖ ἔχει οὕτω ταῦτα."

The occasion of the speech was this. Socrates having refuted several opinions, and after that stated a theory which the sophist thought very firmly established, he expressed great curiosity to hear what Socrates could say against it. Socrates, who made great use of his own pretension of ignorance in exposing the ignorance of others, thought proper, before

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proceeding to examine the theory, to re-assert his own ignorance, in the ironical manner which was common with him; and he said, "You are indeed fond of discussion, Theodorus, and of an admirable disposition; insomuch that you think me a bag of discussion, out of which a refutation may easily be taken of any thing which is advanced." Of this most humourous address the following is the translation of Mr. Taylor, p. 32; "You are sincerely a philologist, and a good man, Theodorus: for you think I am a sack of discourse, out of which I can easily take words, and say that these things are not so." Here not only humour, but sense is well-nigh lost.

Socrates puts into the mouth of an antagonist a speech ridiculing himself, and the persons with whom he was conversing, for the commonness and vulgarity of the discussions they had been engaged in. "Protagoras," says he, "or some one of his followers would say to us, O noble persons, young and old; you here sit together, conversing, and bringing the gods into your discourse, concerning whose existence, or non-existence I neither chuse to speak nor write: And such things as the vulgar, upon hearing them, would admit, these you state and discuss; Ἃ ἂν ὑμῖν πολλοὶ ἀποδέχοιντο ἀκούοντες, λέγετε ταῦτα. This Mr. Taylor translates, p. 34; "Hearing the things which the multitude admit these you assert;" mistaking the word with which ἀκούοντες agrees, and transferring it from that word with which it makes good sense, to the word with which it does not make sense.

Refuting the doctrine that all our knowledge is sense, Socrates asks, Is it possible for any one that knows any thing, to know it and not to know it at the same time?—Impossible, says Theætetus, in my opinion.—Not, rejoins Socrates, if you state sight and knowledge to be the same. For what will you do with this puzzling question (caught, as the proverb says, in a pit,) should some intrepid antagonist ask you, clapping his hand on one of your eyes, if you behold your garment with the covered eye?

"Soc. Τί γὰρ χρήσῃ ἀφύκτῳ ἐρωτήματι, τὸ λεγόμενον, ὑπ' ἀνέπλητος ἀνὴρ, καταλαβὼν τῇ χειρὶ σῷ τὸν ἕτερον ὀφθαλμὸν, εἰ ὁρᾷς τὸ ἱμάτιον τῷ κατειλημμένῳ;"

Mr. Taylor's translation, p. 38, is this; "For what ought you to reply to that inevitable question, which, as it is said, is shut up in a well, if any one should ask you, O intrepid man, whether, on covering one of your eyes with your hand, you can see your garment with the covered eye?" In this there are some mistakes excessively gross. He makes συσχόμενος agree with ἐρωτήματι; he makes ἀνέπλητος ἀνὴρ a vocative; and reduces the sentence to perfect nonsense; for who ever heard of a question shut up in a well? but it was a common Greek proverb, to say of a man puzzled, and not knowing how to extricate himself, that he was enclosed in a pit or a well.

To what Socrates and his companions had been saying of the doctrine of Protagoras, Socrates introduces that philosopher objecting in the following words; "Οὕτω δὴ ὁ Σωκράτης ὁ χρηστὸς, ἐπειδὴ αὐτῷ παιδίον τι ἐρωτηθὲν ἤδεισεν, εἰ οἷόν τε τὸν αὐτὸν τὸ αὐτὸ μεμνῆσθαι ἅμα καὶ μὴ εἰδέναι, καὶ δείσας ἀπέφησε διὰ τὸ μὴ δύνασθαι προορᾶν, γέλωτα δῆτα ἡμῖν ἐν τοῖς λόγοις ἀπέδυξε." Which Mr. Taylor, p. 39, translates thus, "That good man Socrates, when he was interrogated by a boy, whether any one could at the same time remember a thing, and be ignorant of it, was frightened and in his fear denied that any one could; and through being unable to look straight forward, made me appear ridiculous in his discourses." This entirely confounds the meaning of the passage, and grossly violates the original. This makes the young man interrogate Socrates, not Socrates the young man; which was the fact; and which is exactly and strictly expressed by Plato; the literal interpretation of the passage being obviously the following; "This precious Socrates,—after a young man, interrogated by him if it was possible for any one to remember a thing and to be ignorant of it at the same time, was afraid, and in consequence of being afraid answered in the negative from being unable to look far enough forward, —exhibited me (this precious Socrates exhibited) as an object of ridicule in his discourse."

Toward the middle of the dialogue, Theodorus, pressed by Socrates to enter into a discussion, addresses him thus, as the words are translated, p. 42, by Mr. Taylor;

"Theo. It is not easy for him, O Socrates, who sits with you, to refuse an answer to your questions. But I just now spoke like one *delirious*," (what an absurd translation of παραλήρησα? Theodorus only meant to say that he had acted sillily; and this is the true import of the word) "when I said that you would permit me not to divest myself of my garments, and that you would not compel me like the Lacedæmonians. But you appear to me rather to tend to the manners of Sciron. For the Lacedæmonians order us either to strip or depart: but you seem to me rather to act like Antæus. For you do not dismiss him who engages with you, till you have compelled him to wrestle with you in arguments, naked."

Socrates answers:

"Soc. Ἄριστά γε ὦ Θεόδωρε τὴν νόσον μου ἀτιάσασας. Ἰσχυρότερος μέντοι ἐγὼ ἑκείνων. Μυρίοι γὰρ ἤδη μοι Ἡρακλέες τε καὶ Θησέες ἐντυχόντες, κρατεροὶ περὶ τὸ λέγειν, μάλ' ἐμὲ συγκεκόφασιν· Ἀλλ' ἐγὼ οὐδέπω μᾶλλον ἀφέσταμαι. Οὕτω τις ἔρως δεινὸς ἐνδέδυκε τὰς περὶ ταῦτα γυμνασίας· Μὴ οὖν μηδὲ σὺ φθονήσῃς, προσπαιπτρίψάμενος, σαυτόν τε ἅμα καὶ ἐμὲ ὠφελῆσαι."

In translating this reply Mr. Taylor has completely misunderstood the word συγκεκόφασιν, and has given a very improper interpretation of φθονήσῃς. We shall transcribe his translation:

"Soc. You have most excellently, Theodorus, found out a resemblance of my disease. But I am, indeed, more robust than these. For an innumerable multitude of Herculeses and Theseuses, who were very powerful in discourse, have contended with me, and have been very *much wearied*: but, notwithstanding this, I have not in the least desisted; with so dire a love of this exercise am I seized. Do not, therefore, *through envy*, refrain from exercising yourself with me, and benefiting at the same time both me and yourself."

The meaning of the passage is plainly this;

Soc. You have indeed, Theodorus, made an excellent comparison of my disease. I am, however, more hardy than those persons. For many Herculeses and

Theseuses, powerful in dispute, having encountered with me, have severely beaten and bruised me. I am nothing the more, however, induced to desist; so violent a passion has entered into me for this species of contest. Do not you therefore scruple to proceed, since you will at once exercise yourself, and improve me.

We have chiefly confined ourselves to the instances in which Mr. Taylor's mistakes have only affected single passages. It would require too long an explanation to point out instances in which he has mistaken and perverted whole arguments. One passage however may be selected, the concluding one of a long argument, which is so absurdly translated as to prove that the author must have understood nothing at all about the argument which preceded. Socrates had been refuting the opinion of Protagoras, "that man is the measure of all things, and that every man's opinions and perceptions are true with regard to himself." The substance of one argument was this; "You say Protagoras that your theory is true, because you think it so. You say too that the opinions of other men are true, because they think them so. But their opinion is, that your theory is false. And as their opinions are true, your theory must be false in reality. After this argument against this theory, Socrates stated another, to which Theodorus likewise assented, and replied

"Theo. Ἐκείνῃ μοι δοκεῖ, ὦ Σώκρατες, μάλιστα ἀλίσκεσθαι ὁ λόγος ἀλισκόμενος· ᾗ ταύτῃ, ᾗ τὰς τῶν ἄλλων δόξας κυρίας ποιεῖ, αὗται δὲ ἐφάνησαν τὴν ἐκείνου λόγους εὐδαμῆ ἀληθεῖς ἡγέμεναι." which may be translated thus: "By this last argument (ἐκείνῃ), the theory we are refuting, Socrates, appears to me to be very completely refuted; and likewise by that (ταύτῃ) which shewed that it makes other people's opinions true; and these opinions appeared to be, that this doctrine of Protagoras is altogether false."

Nothing can exhibit a more gross misunderstanding of the passage than Mr. Taylor's translation, which runs thus:

"Theo. From that, Socrates, it appears to me that his doctrine is particularly convincing, and from this also that it makes the opinions of others valid. But cities reprobate his assertions, and by no means think them to be true."

The following short sentence may be taken as an instance of the inelegance which so much distinguishes this translation. Theætetus, when called upon by Socrates, toward the end of the conversation, had readily advanced an opinion, though he had hesitated about doing so at the beginning, and Socrates answered, "This indeed is right Theætetus, to speak out freely, and not to demur, as you did at the beginning." It is thus, Mr. Taylor, p. 66, expresses it; "In this manner Theætetus it is proper to act—I mean, to speak, with alacrity, and not as you were at first, be averse to answer." The original is, Οὕτω μεντοι χρη, ὦ Θεαίτητε, λέγειν προθύμως μᾶλλον ἢ ὡς τοπρῶτον ὤκνεις ἀποκρίνεσθαι.

The next passage may be taken as an instance of the unintelligible in Mr. Taylor's translation, p. 67:

"Soc. It is not a simple thing; because he who, with respect to any thing, opines things which are not, must unavoidably opine falsely, in whatever manner the particulars pertaining to his dianoëtic part may subsist."

The original is, "Μὴ ἀπλοῦν ἦ· ἔστι ὁ τὰ μὴ ὄντα περί ὁτωοῦν δοξάζων οὐκ ἔσθ' ὡς ὁ ψευδῆ δοξάσει, κᾀν ὁπωσοῦν ἄλλως τὰ τῆς διανοίας ἔχῃ."

Socrates had just broached an opinion; Theætetus, not understanding it thus imperfectly expressed, said, "How do you say?" And Socrates answered, "Something, I fear, not simple; that he who thinks the thing which is not concerning any thing, necessarily thinks erroneously concerning that thing, however his understanding may be with regard to other things."

Theætetus answers Εικος γ' αὖ, ὦ Σωκρατες. Even this Mr. Taylor translates wrong.

"It is *proper* it should be so Socrates." The meaning of εικος here, is *probable*; and it should have been translated, "It is probable indeed O Socrates."

We were surprized to find on what trifling occasions unpardonable blunders were committed. Socrates having occasion to describe δοξα (opinion) says it is formed by the soul discoursing within itself, interrogating and answering, affirming and denying, concerning the object of its consideration. He adds Οταν δὲ ὁρισασα (scil. ψυχη,) ἔιτε βραδύτερον ἔιτε ὀξύτερον ἐπαίζασα, τὸ αὐτὸ ἤδη φῇ και μὴ διαζῃ, δόξαν ταύτην τίθεμεν αυτῆς. Nothing can be more free from difficulty than this; "But when, having defined (or fully considered,) whether having proceeded with greater or less rapidity, it (the soul) constantly says the same thing, and does not doubt, this we call its δοξα, or opinion." Mr. Taylor completely mistakes the meaning of διαζῃ, and translates μη διαζῃ "without opposition;" thus, "But when having defined, it asserts without opposition, whether more slowly or more rapidly, then I call this opinion." p. 70.

The next instance we shall produce it is really difficult to account for, but by supposing ignorance of a fact which almost every school-boy knows. Socrates had been saying that orators by their harangues produced *persuasion* in the hearers, but not *knowledge*; and one reason he assigns is this; that knowledge requires a great while for its production; but the harangue of the orator is very short, being restricted to the period during which a certain quantity of water is running through an orifice of certain dimensions; and he asks his companion, "Ἦ σὺ οἶει διωκὺς τους ὕτω διδασκάλους εἶναι, ὥστε οἷς μὴ παρεγιγνοτό τινες ἀποτετμημένοις χρήματα, ἢ τι ἄλλο βιαζομένοις, τούτους δύνασθαι πρὸς ὕδωρ σμικρὸν διδάξαι ἱκανως τῶν γιγνομένων τὴν ἀλήθειαν;" There is considerable difficulty in the middle clause of this sentence, which it will be seen how Mr. T. slurs over, by a vague translation, which is only a guess at the meaning: but that to which we wish chiefly to draw the attention of our reader is the translation of προς ὕδωρ σμικρον, which means, "during the running out of a little water." Mr. Taylor's translation of the whole passage is this; "or do you think there are any teachers so skilful, as to be able in cases of robbery and other violences to evince sufficiently the truth of the transactions *by a little water*?" p. 85. Mr. Taylor surely meant to refer to the ordeal trials of our Gothic ancestors. How otherwise the truth

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of any transactions could be evinced by a little water, we are unable to comprehend.

The following must strike every one as a remarkable instance of absurdity. Socrates is about to describe the three meanings of the word λογος. The first which he mentions is the same as that of our word *speech*, which Plato describes very beautifully thus;

"Soc. Τό μέν πρότον εἴη ἂν τὸ τὴν αὐτοῦ διάνοιαν ἐμφανῆ ποιεῖν διὰ φωνῆς μετὰ ῥημάτων τε καὶ ὀνομάτων, ὥσπερ εἰς κάτοπτρον ἢ ὕδωρ τὴν δόξαν ἐκτυπούμενην εἰς τὴν διὰ τοῦ στόματος ῥοήν." In Mr. Taylor's language we have no doubt it will appear a very strange description. "The first," says he, p. 93, "will be to make its own dianoetic conception apparent," (the dianoetic conception of λογος!) "through voice, in conjunction with verbs and nouns; thus impressing opinion in the flux through the mouth, as in a mirror or in water." The following translation is imperfect, but conveys some idea of the original. "The first sense in which λογος is used is, the making its own meaning evident by means of sound with words and names (that is, by articulate sounds), the sentiment being figured out, in the flow of sound from the mouth, as objects are figured out in a mirror or in water."

When the reader considers that all these instances of mistranslation are collected from one dialogue, and that we have left in that single dialogue twice as many, of which we have taken no notice, he will know what opinion to form of the *accuracy* of Mr. Taylor's translation.

We have pointed out one instance above, where Mr. Taylor has slurred over a difficulty. It is his constant practice. Mr. Sydenham was at great pains to point out, in his notes, the passages in which it was difficult to find a meaning; and described exactly the changes which he found it necessary to make in the text, to support the translation which he gave; and many of his emendations are particularly happy. Mr Taylor does no such thing. To all the difficult, and all the corrupt passages, he gives a vague translation, which most frequently has no meaning whatever, and very often a meaning at variance with the context. There is not one philological note, so far as we remember, to the whole of Mr. Taylor's translation. They are all employed in foolish illustration of those theories, the most absurd that ever bewildered the human brain, with which the mind of Mr. Taylor is so much intoxicated. M.

The Sailor's Daughter, a Comedy in Five Acts. By Richard Cumberland, *Esq. Lackington, Allen, and Co.* 1804. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Dramatic productions were by the ancients accounted among the highest efforts of human genius. The same ideas have been communicated to the moderns, and the natives of Great-Britain allow the talents of Shakspeare to be as splendid as any that ever adorned our isle. There has appeared however of late a strange contradiction between our theory and practice. We express our high reverence of dramatic talents, and our admiration of those pieces which place before us the workings of the human heart, and the lively picture of human action; yet when we hear that an author has written a tragedy or comedy, we feel little interested about him; and if the piece escapes damnation, our inquiries are almost entirely confined to the actors whose exertions have *given it a run*. An edition or two of a new play that succeeds is indeed in general sold off, to satisfy the curiosity of those who live in the country, and have not had an opportunity of seeing it represented; but no one who sees a new play ever thinks of reading it, and no one who has once read it ever thinks of a second perusal. The critic follows the example of the public; plays are almost always consigned to that undistinguished mass which are reckoned unworthy of public notice, and incapable of exciting general attention in the readers of a review. We should perhaps blush to own that this has also been the practice with ourselves, did we not recollect having always warned our readers not to expect a review at length except of such publications as deserved it.

We have, however, on the present occasion perhaps neglected this rule, for several reasons. It seemed necessary to point out to the public the causes of that neglect with which dramatic performances in general are treated by the critic: the name of Cumberland also deserves some respect; he is one of the very few living authors who can have the slightest hope of outliving their *half*-century; and in a preface to the piece before us he has appealed from what he accounts the false taste of the stage to the better judgement of the closet.

The causes which have more immediately tended to bring dramatic productions into disrepute, are but of recent origin: Mr. Cumberland is perfectly correct in his preface when he says, that "he has *lived* to see a good old practice laid aside, and a new one introduced." But he is in a great mistake if he thinks he has himself contributed in no degree to this dramatic decay. The species of comedy cultivated by Mr. Cumberland, has in it a considerable mixture of the *Comedie Larmoyante*. His personages have often fine feelings and make use of fine sentiments; much oftener indeed than the occasion demands. This mode of introducing sentiment, in season and out of season, has been one great cause of the corruption of our drama. It has indeed put Tragedy out of fashion altogether, we mean such compositions as formerly bore this name. The labour of composing in blank verse is considerable; the labour of giving a proper enunciation is no less so to the actor; the species of composition adopted in the *Comedie Larmoyante*, serves the same purpose, and saves all this labour. While an assemblage of tragic incidents, connected by a species of dialogue composed of certain exclamations in simple prose, are found to answer the purpose, it is in vain to expect that an author will waste his time in forming a tragedy in verse, which he knows the managers are too wise ever to peruse.

While the introduction of sentimental exclamation has given the death-blow to legitimate tragedy, it has proved no less destructive to legitimate comedy. Sentiment, common-place tame misapplied sentiment has been made to supply the place of wit and humour, the play of language and brilliancy of comic incident which once so greatly distinguished the English stage.

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Nothing has tended more to degrade the drama in the public estimation than the introduction of that sentimental jargon which more or less defiles almost every comedy of our age. It has indeed become fashionable with the galleries to applaud the most hacknied and ridiculous sentiment, when uttered with due vociferation and contortion; but this is the utmost goal of its fame: no one cares to be twice the hearer of these new comic beauties; to read them twice, deprived as then they are of scenery and acting, is beyond all human endurance. With such flowers, however, Mr. Cumberland must be conscious that his comedies often abound; and these, beautiful as he may think them, will prove the leaden weights which are ready to sink most of his pieces into the deep gulf of oblivion.

There is another cause which has tended to render our modern comedies particularly insipid; and it deserves the more to be remarked, as several writers, among whom Mr. Cumberland stands conspicuous, have even piqued themselves upon it. These gentlemen have imagined that they should produce admirable comedies and complete pictures of nature by rendering their dialogue such a conversation as might very reasonably be supposed to have passed between persons upon ordinary occasions. By this mode the German writers have of late imagined themselves to be imitating Shakspeare; and hence we have a very genteel company frequently introduced at dinner or breakfast, calling for their wine, or ordering their toast and butter, and talking of the weather, and the news of the day just in their ordinary way. One of these dramatists (if we recollect well his name is *Brandt*) introduces a lady engaged in bribing a Secretary of State with a pound of green tea and two pounds of loaf sugar: it is to be observed that the scene lies in Germany, where such incidents are not uncommon, however odd they might appear in Downing-street. One should here anticipate much humour where so excellent an opportunity was afforded of holding up to ridicule the petti-fogging corruption of a German courtier. The dramatist, however, is afraid that the introduction of wit and humour might render the scene less a copy of nature, as such scenes may often pass without a single humorous circumstance in them. The reader, therefore, after listening to a very grave descant between the lady and the secretary on the qualities of tea and sugar, is dismissed without one single provocation to disturb the tranquillity of his muscles. This flatness and insipidity of dialogue, especially when our hopes have been raised by a comic situation, is particularly disgusting; and is what renders most of the German comedies, and nearly all our late English ones utterly incapable of amusing in the closet.

We know that Mr. Cumberland and others have endeavoured to justify this tameness of dialogue as well as the use of sentiment by alledging the example of the ancients, particularly that of Terence. This particular which these gentlemen affect to imitate, is almost the only fault which has been found in the delightful comedies of Terence: the want of *vis comica* has long been observed in him as the only defect which prevents his comedies from being almost perfect. But while our modern dramatists pride themselves on copying the defects of Terence, they forget entirely to copy those charms by which this defect in him almost loses its character. His sentiments are not bombastic excrescences stuck upon the dialogue like so many Venus's and Cupids in the alleys of a kitchen-garden. His sentiments are usually short moral observations arising naturally out of the incidents: and if they are sometimes sufficiently formal, still they are always expressed with such a felicity of language, that we repeat them and commit them to memory with pleasure. His dialogue, in the same manner, even where it exhibits the fewest strokes of wit or humour, is so elegantly turned, that we believe no reader, capable of relishing the beauties of language, was ever less pleased with it on a second than a first perusal. The case is widely different with the tame dialogues of our modern dramatists: we believe the beauties of their language are among the qualities that least often tempt their readers to a second perusal.

Is has been a peculiar misfortune for Mr. Cumberland that he has all along imagined himself to be writing comedy, while he was only stringing together tame conversations. Dialogues in which persons merely say what any person might say on the same occasion cannot form a comedy. Comedy requires that vice should be held up to our view in such ludicrous colours as that any one would be ashamed to be caught in it; and that folly should be rendered as ridiculous to all on the stage, as it is to the wise in real life. It requires that characters should be strongly marked, so that their peculiarities, their virtues, vices, follies may at once be distinguishable; otherwise no useful lesson can be afforded: and if it is intended that comedy should be a source of amusement, the dialogue must certainly contain a far greater degree of wit and humour than is to be found in the ordinary conversation of any assemblage of persons. The tints of nature must in short be heightened in order to make them produce a sufficiently lively impression on those to whom they are presented in such a brief and transitory view.

But besides overdone sentiment and insipid dialogue, from which Mr. Cumberland is no more to be excused than others; there are other circumstances which have greatly tended to degrade comedy in the public estimation, and from which he stands in a great measure acquitted. What he justly terms in his preface the "cap and bells" of a play, has of late years occupied nearly the whole attention of the theatre. The scenery, the music, the stage-effect, in short, what may be termed the pantomime part of a play, are what now almost exclusively engross the cares of the manager. The words which seem as a vehicle to the music of a song are a matter of no moment whatever; and the dialogue which connects the incidents, and serves as a vehicle for action, is only regarded according to its aptness for this subordinate office. Hence it comes that nothing else is now expected in a play farther than its attraction on the stage: the connecting link of scenery and incident, which alone can be exhibited by the printer, is justly disregarded as a meagre skeleton that can afford no gratification whatever. The dramatic author has adopted the same ideas. Finding that his access into the green-room

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depends upon the occasions which his play affords for the display of scenery and action, he wisely quits the arduous paths of wit and humour, and prudently pockets his profits, leaving the poets of former times to the quiet enjoyment of their posthumous fame.

This mode of considering the dialogue as merely a vehicle for action, is intimately connected with the abuse of framing the characters of a play, not with the intention of making them pictures of those exhibited by nature, but entirely with the view of fitting them to the manner of the actors who are to represent them. To draw a character so as to correspond with the peculiar style of an actor, is in some degree justifiable. One actress excells as a woman of fashion, another as a waiting maid. The poet may have each of these in his eye while he is drawing the part they are to represent; but unless he has genius enough to catch the spirit of their acting, and to distinguish it from the modifications of their manner, he is in danger of merely drawing a copy of the characters he has already seen them perform. His woman of fashion will be just the woman of fashion he has already seen the actress represent; and he will never be able to draw two distinct waiting-maids for the same performer.

This plan of drawing characters to suit the actors, being adopted by writers destitute of discrimination, has tended in a remarkable degree to render our comedies tasteless and neglected. The characters of our new plays are mere counterparts of those which our actors have already acquired reputation in performing: they are not a tale twice told, but fifty times told. No wonder that little curiosity should be excited by the appearance of a new play, when twenty new plays may appear without one new character.

We have thus shortly stated some of the causes which in our days have rendered dramatic performances so little an object of estimation. Our limits will not allow us to enter into the arguments which the authors and managers alledge in their own defence, such as the largeness of our theatres, the perversion of public taste, the necessity of going along with the multitude, &c. Whatever may be the force of these reasons in their justification, the observations we have made are sufficient to shew that plays are not read because they are not worthy of being read, and that they are not criticised because they do not deserve to be criticized.

We have already given our reasons for the present notice of the comedy before us. Mr. Cumberland had acquired deserved reputation from his *West Indian*; his *Fashionable Lover* might also pass in our day for no ordinary performance: but we have been sorry to observe this author for some years persevering in tacking together tame dialogues, and imagining all the while that he was writing comedies. We will not fatigue our readers by any long analysis, necessarily insipid, of that which is "neither witty itself, nor the cause that wit is in others." A few observations on the principal characters will sufficiently disclose the merits of the present piece. *Julia*, the heroine, if she has really no character whatever, is still but like most of her sex, according to Pope's opinion. She appears indeed to have but one faculty, that of falling in love desperately at first sight with the very person the Poet could have wished her. *Captain Sentamour*, the hero, had been left this young lady's protector by her father when he fell in the battle of Copenhagen. He had all along supported her by remittances, without her knowledge, and now at last comes in disguise to win her heart fairly: the stratagem of course succeeds. We are judiciously *told* that Captain Sentamour is a gallant sea-officer, otherwise we should never have been able to discover whether he belonged to the sea-service, or the land-service, or indeed to any service at all. *Hartshorn*, the most active personage in the piece, has also, we understand from his wife, been in the sea-service. He has, however, quitted the cock-pit of a man of war, to become an apothecary at Bath: and it is probably owing to his having left the one character and not yet acquired the other, that we find him sometimes *endeavouring* to be a sea-doctor, at others *endeavouring* to be a land-apothecary, and yet still oftener appearing neither the one nor the other. *Varnish*, by his name, gave us reason to suspect that his outside was his brightest part: yet for any thing he says or does to the contrary, we should have looked upon him as a very serious sententious personage, were we not at length informed, by those who seem to know him, that he is one of the consummate fops of the age. Our readers will excuse us from dwelling on the other characters after this specimen of the principal ones. Mr. C. may certainly be acquitted of having drawn his personages in this piece to suit particular actors: we believe the green-room might draw lots for them, and not one actor have a character turned up which would better suit his neighbour. Here are names, incidents, and dialogue; we suppose it was intended the players should make characters to suit their own fancy.

If incidents are to be valued according to their suddenness, there are few pieces that claim more admiration in this respect than the *Sailor's Daughter*. The lovers fall in love suddenly; they disclose their passions suddenly, they are joined in wedlock suddenly: an old hypochondriac free-liver is restored by a visit of the apothecary to health and vigour suddenly: a blustering fop suddenly repents of his folly, and becomes a man of honour and sentiment suddenly.

Such is the *Sailor's Daughter*, for the merits of which Mr. Cumberland appeals from the present generation to posterity. Perhaps, amidst the general wreck which seems to impend over the dramas of this age, the Sailor's Daughter may be destined to be by some chance preserved in order to inform the antiquaries of posterity what sort of things English comedies were at the commencement of the nineteenth century. Ω.

The Shipwreck; a Poem by William Falconer, a Sailor. The Text Illustrated by Additional Notes, and Corrected from the First and Second Editions, with a Life of the Author. By James Stanier Clarke, *F.R.S. Miller* 1804. *royal* 8vo. *1l. 1s. fine paper 2l. 2s.*

We are induced to notice this new edition of Fal-

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coner's Shipwreck, by the Life of the author which is for the first time prefixed to it. The elegance with which the typography and embellishments of the edition are executed, might indeed of themselves lay claim to the attention of the critic. We are not in general apt to be particularly dazzled or captivated with finery of this sort; especially when we find them (as has very often happened to us of late) employed in the same manner as the splendid wings and brilliant colours with which nature hides the deformities of the hairy worm before it is sent forth to flutter its hour in the public view. But to see the effusions of real genius, the beautiful offspring of the true poet's fancy, arrayed in all the elegance which the artist can throw around them, is every way suitable. In the picturesque poetry of Falconer, where so many of the most impressive scenes of nature are presented to our view, the embellishments of the designer are introduced with peculiar propriety; and fine paper and a beautiful type, appear in perfect harmony with the elegant lines of the *Shipwreck*. The plates and vignettes are designed by Mr. Pocock and engraved by Mr. Fittler in a style of very superior elegance and correctness: they do the highest credit to the taste and skill of these artists. The first vignette, representing a Levant trader just launched, is executed with an exactness which equally delights and surprizes.

The zeal which Mr. Clarke has displayed in collecting a Biographical Memoir of Falconer, must be warmly applauded by every one who is capable of relishing the beauties of the Shipwreck; for every person of this description must be deeply interested to learn the character and fortunes of that hapless genius, who so feelingly paints the calamities of his early youth under the name of Arion. The particulars discovered are still few; but hitherto they were almost entirely unknown; and the biographer who has collected all that perhaps industry could procure, deserves equal praise as if they had been complete. We must add that this tribute to our Naval poet, comes with a peculiar grace from Mr. Clarke, who has so long devoted his labours to exalt the character and describe the exertions of seamen. The principal anecdotes in the Memoir before us, were procured from Governor Hunter and his brother Lieutenant Hunter of Greenwich Hospital; who had been the friends, and the former the ship-mate of Falconer. Who will not read the Shipwreck with greater admiration, after learning the early obstacles which obstructed the rise of this wonderful genius?

"Mr. William Falconer was born about the year 1730, and was the son of a poor but industrious barber at Edinburgh; who, like Fielding's celebrated *Partridge*, possessed considerable talents and humour, and maintained a large family by his industry. It is remarkable that all his children, with the sole exception of our author, were either deaf or dumb: Falconer himself mentioned this singular circumstance to Captain Hunter, when they were shipmates together; and 'I had afterwards," adds that officer, 'an opportunity of being convinced of its truth; when, long after the commencement of my acquaintance with him, I met two of his family labouring under these infirmities in the poor-house at Edinburgh, where they continued until their death.'

"Poverty in Scotland is never depressed by ignorance, or a want of religious principles: Falconer therefore, though poor, had a proper bias given to his mind, from the first dawn of its intellectual powers; and it was this bias, impelled by the energy of his genius, which enabled him without any further education, to reach the goal of literary fame. When very young he entered on board a merchant vessel at Leith, and therein served his apprenticeship. We afterwards find him in the capacity of a servant to Campbell, the author of Lexiphanes, when purser of a ship. This officer, according to Dr. Currie, delighted in improving the mind of our young seaman; and, afterwards, when he had acquired celebrity, this early patron felt a pride in boasting of his scholar. Probably from the interest of this master, Falconer was afterwards made second mate of a vessel employed in the Levant trade, which was shipwrecked during her passage from Alexandria to Venice. Only three of the crew survived; and from this melancholy event, calculated to make a lasting impression on his mind, and which seemed, as it were, a foretaste of the dreadful fate he would one day endure, our poet afterwards drew the outline and characters of one of the finest poems in our language.

"At this distance of time it is impossible to discover the friends who, at so critical a juncture, fostered the hopes, and relieved the necessities of our shipwrecked mariner; all that I can collect for certain is, that Falconer continued in the merchant service until he had gained the patronage of His Royal Highness Edward, Duke of York, by dedicating to him the inimitable poem of THE SHIPWRECK in the spring of 1762."

Previous to this time Falconer had given several indications of his poetical genius. Few, however, of his small occasional pieces have been preserved; nor are there any of them so conducive to his fame as to render their preservation an object of much importance. The reception of the Shipwreck was such as its merits deserved. "The poem succeeded from the moment it appeared; its author was deservedly called a second Homer; and the Duke of York, (then commanding a ship in Admiral Hawke's fleet) eager to honour Falconer with every possible mark of his favour, advised him to quit the merchant service for the Royal Navy: accordingly before the summer elapsed, he was rated a midshipman on board Sir Edward Hawke's ship, the Royal George."

At the peace in 1763, the Royal George was paid off.

"As Falconer wanted much of that complementary time of service, which qualifies an officer to attend the customary examination for a Lieutenant's commission, his friends advised him to exchange the military, for the civil line in the royal navy; and accordingly, in the course of the said year, 1763, he was appointed Purser of the Glory Frigate, 32 guns. The subsequent death of the gallant Duke of York at Monacoa on the 17th of September, 1767, though felt by all the nation, was more particularly a severe loss to Falconer; whose welfare, owing to this melancholy event, became again precarious. His literary fame, however, was established; some few friends, among whom the Hunters took the lead, still remained; and he accordingly endeavoured to dry the tear, which the memory of his royal patron frequently called forth, by indulging in the vision of hope that was still prolonged: nor did Providence in this emergency forsake him. Soon after his appointment to the Glory, Falconer had married a young lady of the name of Hicks, who I believe is still living; but where, I have hitherto been unable to discover. She

probably possesses not only a miniature of her husband, but many manuscripts and letters, which would tend to throw additional light on his biography. Miss Hicks's father was surgeon of Sheerness Yard, and enjoyed considerable talents for poetry. Mrs. Falconer is described to me as displaying keen abilities; and that it was the lustre of her mind, rather than of her person, which attracted and confirmed the affection of her husband.

"Falconer's principal amusement always consisted in literary occupation; and when the Glory was laid up in ordinary at Chatham, Commissioner Hanway, brother to the celebrated Jonas Hanway, became delighted with the genius of its purser. The captain's cabin was ordered to be fitted up with a stove, and with every addition of comfort that could be procured; in order that Falconer might thus be enabled to enjoy his favourite propensity, without either molestation or expence. How long he continued in this retreat is uncertain; for here again my information fails me. In this hermitage he finished his celebrated Universal Dictionary of the Marine; a work that had engaged his utmost application for some years. The undertaking was first suggested to him by George Lewis Scott, Esq. and its great utility was acknowledged by Sir Edward Hawke, and other professional men in the Navy."

Poor Falconer, however, like most other men of genius, found poverty the immediate result of those favourite pursuits to which the hours had been dedicated that might have been employed in a more lucrative industry.

"The Universal Dictionary of the Marine was not printed until 1769; after he had left his naval retreat at Chatham, and had been obliged to take up his abode in a garret in the metropolis: where I fear he struggled for a considerable time against the *res angusta domus*. His spirits, however, and the attentions of an affectionate partner; with the chance rencounter of some old messmates; enabled him to weather those breakers which the great ocean of Life so frequently presents. Among other resources he derived a pittance from writing in the Critical Review, under his countryman Mallet; and, at one time, received proposals from Mr. Murray, to be admitted as a partner in the line of business, which that respectable bookseller afterwards established."

Falconer, however, was soon after appointed purser to the Aurora frigate, Captain Lee, which was ordered to carry out to India, Henry Vansittart, Esq. Luke Scorpion, Esq. and Colonel F. Forde.

"The joy which this appointment gave to the friends of Falconer may easily be imagined; but this, alas! was of short duration: the Aurora sailed from England on the 30th of September, 1769; and after touching at the Cape, was lost during the remainder of the passage."

Such was the untimely fate of the author of the Shipwreck. The vessel was supposed to have foundered in the channel of Mosambique. The following description of this ill-fated genius is given by his biographer:

"Such are the principal events respecting Falconer which I have been able to collect. In his person he was about five feet seven inches in height; of a thin light make, with a dark weather-beaten complexion, and rather what is termed hard featured; being considerably marked with the small-pox, his hair was of a brownish hue. In point of address, his manner was blunt, awkward, and forbidding: but he spoke with great fluency; and his simple yet impressive diction was couched in words which reminded his hearers of the terseness of Swift. Though Falconer possessed a warm and friendly disposition, he was fond of controversy, and inclined to satire. His observation was keen, and rapid; his criticisms on any inaccuracy of language, or expression were frequently severe; yet this severity was always intended eventually to create mirth, and not by any means to shew his own superiority, or to give the smallest offence. In his natural temper he was cheerful, and frequently used to amuse his messmates by composing Acrostics on their favourites; in which he particularly excelled. As a professional man, he was a thorough seaman; and, like most of that profession, was kind, generous, and benevolent. He often assured Governor Hunter, that his education had been confined merely to reading English, writing, and a little arithmetic; notwithstanding which he was never at a loss to understand either French, Spanish, Italian, or even German."

Two editions of the Shipwreck had been published under the author's eye. A third he was preparing at the time he was appointed purser to the Aurora. Amidst the joy and bustle of this event, his biographer suspects he had entrusted the last alterations to his friend Mr. Mallet, who seems to have used some liberties with the text. Mr. Clarke in the present edition attempts to restore the purity of the original text, and at the same time to preserve all the new beauties introduced into the third edition. As this is so much a matter of taste, he has very properly given in the notes those variations which he has rejected, and pointed out those which he has adopted. To the original notes of Falconer a considerable number are added by Mr. Clarke and his friends. The notes of Falconer are by far the most valuable: some of the additional notes are useful for explanation, many of them are employed to point out beauties which no reader could overlook, and to trace a similarity of sentiment and expression in other authors with whom it is no compliment to the genius of Falconer to be compared.

Upon the whole we have been much gratified with this edition of the Shipwreck; and we ardently hope that Mr. Clarke's example will incite others to attempt bringing to light some further memoirs of our unfortunate Naval Poet. Ω.

A Sporting Tour through the Northern Parts of England, and a great Part of Scotland, including Remarks on English and Scottish Landscape; and General Observations on the State of Society and Manners. By Colonel Thornton, *of Thornville Royal, in Yorkshire. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Vernor and Hood.*

Tours are undertaken for the purpose either of instruction or amusement; and sometimes for both. The title of the present tour shews that it was undertaken for amusement, and very amusing no doubt it was to Colonel Thornton himself, but whether the detail is calculated to amuse others remains to be ascertained. The qualifications of the author to decide upon the merits of the highlands of Scotland as a sporting country, are perhaps with great justice rated pretty high, for in an advertisement prefixed to the work it is said, "that it required a gentleman of Colonel Thornton's fortune, added to his knowledge of *hunting*, *hawking*, and *fishing* to do in any degree that justice to the subject which it evidently merits,

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and it will be acknowledged from the great preparation for, and the manner in which the journey was undertaken, that no means were neglected to conduce to this end." It must be confessed, that the preparations were ample. They consisted of two boats for the purpose of navigating the lakes, and fishing; together with a complete camp equipage, guns, fishing tackle, and every thing likely to be wanted, which were put on board the *Falcon sloop*, a vessel engaged for the expedition. Besides all this, for the land travel, in addition to the horses, there were a gig and two baggage waggons. The party consisted of Mr. *Garrard*, an eminent artist, engaged to take the most striking views, some of the Colonel's friends, and, though last not least, the Colonel himself; who, with a great train of servants, not forgetting a good *cook*, and all this formidable apparatus, advanced to the north like a hero of romance (not Don Quixote, for he was not so well attended) carrying war and devastation among the unconscious heath-cocks, moor fowl, Ptarmigans, mallards, pike, trout and eels. The fishing-boats already mentioned, were christened *the Ville de Paris*, and *Gibraltar*, in imitation no doubt of the practice of several renowned heroes, who ascribed much virtue to sounding names, well knowing that the horses of Alexander and the no less famous knight of *La Mancha*, would have been nothing more than other horses, had they not been transmitted to posterity under the dignified appellations of *Bucephalus* and *Rosinanté*. Every thing being properly disposed of, the party advanced through Durham and Newcastle, and proceeded to Edinburgh by Coldstream bridge, Kelso, and Dalkeith. In this journey several adventures are recorded, worthy of being had in everlasting remembrance, among which are distinguished, the account of the famous horse *Matchem*, the sending for *King* the dog-breaker to the inn at *Morpeth*, and the attack by a furious mastiff, in which the valour of Colonel Thornton is justly celebrated; but the hero escaped with a better grace than the immortal knight of the rueful countenance from his desperate combat with the wind-mill. Be it also known to the world, that in fishing on the Tiviot, Mr. Packhurst, like an unskilful cockney, fished with fly as he would with a worm, at which the hero of the tour, whose knowledge of angling has been already celebrated, laughed so immoderately that Mr. P. asked him whether he had seen a female or any *other* creature fit to be the cause of such extraordinary mirth. At *Loch Waccup*, several *Kettiwakes* were killed, the young of which are considered as an excellent *whet*, though a stranger once expressed himself of a different opinion, for after having fed upon them with great impatience, he exclaimed, "that he had eaten sax,* and did na fmd himsel a bit more hungry." The progress through the western and northern highlands consists almost entirely of details of the success of the sporting, and the state of the weather on each particular day of the month, of all which a regular journal was kept in the manner of a ship's *log-book*. The numbers of the killed and wounded are given like the returns of a muster-roll. The *magnums* of claret drunk, and the general orders respecting the provisions are regularly set down, to the great amusement and edification of the reader. For instance, how vastly must the world be amused and edified in learning that on such a day of such a month, the magnanimous author shot so many fowls; hooked so many *noble fellows* (fishes,) some of whom were caught and some escaped; ate of such and such dishes; drank of such and such wines; broke his fishing-rod on one day; hurt his heel on another; wore boots on one day, and shoes on another; fished sometimes with worm, sometimes with fly; used sometimes one kind of bait, sometimes another; came home sometimes early, sometimes late; employed one kind of shot at one time, and another at another; with various different pieces of information equally important! Several excellent directions are given upon the science of fishing, and among other things in gorge-fishing it is recommended (take notice that the Col. intends to be witty) *to read a sermon* between the time of the fish striking at the bait, and the time of pulling him; and in failure of a sermon, a chapter in the Pilgrim's Progress might be a *pretty* substitute. It is also recommended to sportsmen to dry their own powder, in case it should have been wetted, for it is improper to leave it to servants, who are ignorant of the science of *chemistry*, in which sportsmen are supposed to be profoundly skilled. The author returns to his place of residence in Yorkshire by the same route he had before taken, and here the sportsman will be entertained with delicious descriptions of the astonishing bottom of the Colonel's mare, with exact returns after *famous* shooting, and an accurate account of the state of the weather, which furnishes so excellent a topic for conversation.

This *famous* tour concludes with an account of the characteristic scenery of the highlands, and some botanical remarks; but these are borrowed from another person, being quite out of the way of the author, who found sufficient employment in drawing up bills of fare, issuing general orders respecting provisions, reckoning up the numbers of the killed and wounded, and examining the accuracy of the dates and returns, conceiving it of the last importance for the world to know all these particulars, and dreading even the dissolution of society, unless informed that on the 10th of October, Col. Thornton dined at Mr. J. M'D's, that the day was charming, but cold, that he had tolerable sport and that the returns were nine partridges. That the reader may have some idea of the extraordinary entertainment to be found in the work, a few extracts are subjoined.

P. 123.—"A hodge podge prepared at Raits of moor-game killed by the hawks, which before the rain came on had been fortunate; mutton and bacon were put on the fire in the kitchen; I got dry things; Balacroon fished with the Seine, and killed in ten minutes at the tent door, a small salmon and as many trout as would have fed double our number. At 8 o'clock dinner was announced in the dining room, it consisted of

A hodge-podge.

REMOVE.

Boil'd Trout and Salmon,
Rein Deer's tongue,
Cold Fowl,
Brandered moor-game.

* This bird is about the size of a pigeon.

SAUCES.
Garlick, and Capsicum vinegars,
REMOVE.
Cheshire Cheese,
Moor-game gizzards,
Biscuits.
Liquors,—Port, Imperial, Jamaica rum punch with fresh limes,
Porter and Ale, &c. &c.

We drank a little more than is usual, and slept very comfortably, ardently wishing for a fair day.

Returns. One salmon, twenty-three trout, seventeen moor-game."

The reader is no doubt so delighted with the amazing information contained here, that he can have no objection to another extract.

P. 149. Sept. 7th.—Mr. D. and I shot separately owing to the wet ground. The birds were exceedingly wild, so much so, that I had very indifferent success. At one shot however, I killed an old cock at so great a distance that I was inclined to measure it; it was not so far as I imagined, being only one hundred and three yards.—I knew the hawks would be able to do something and I really wanted game for Mr. D.; therefore lost no opportunity, knowing likewise that hawked birds keep longest. We flew the falcon which played his part admirably, certain death attending each flight, neither sparing age nor sex. The tercel also killed the flights she made, but I could not from the wind get my gun to fire once in three times.

"Got back to Raits early and found Mr. D. there. From the ground he had shot upon, being less exposed to the wind he had had very good sport, though it is a wonder to me how he could kill any with four half-educated dogs. *He is really an excellent shot, few exceed him.*

I had a very comfortable party to dinner and made the most of it. Captain Mackintosh and the Laird were among my guests, and promised to pass some time with me.

"Returns; Mr. D. fifteen—Col. T——; hawks, seven."

Whoever wishes for more information of the same sort, may consult the work itself, which with hawking, shooting, guzzling and fishing, is swelled to a moderate quarto. Colonel Thornton is always the hero of his own tale.

The anecdotes of *Bozi* and *Piozzi* are not to be compared to those of this noble Colonel *Ego*, about the minutest of whose actions the whole world must be interested, at least in his own opinion. This work serves admirably to illustrate the observation, that some men are of vast importance to themselves, and therefore suppose that their consequence is equally felt by others. Thinking that the world must be eager to learn their most trifling concerns, they render themselves ridiculous by proclaiming aloud, that exactly 25 minutes and 3 seconds after 4 o'clock in the afternoon they took a pinch of snuff, held the snuff-box in their hands about a quarter of an hour, had 3 comfortable sneezes, then took another pinch and precisely at half an hour after 4 o'clock returned the snuff-box into their pocket.

Notwithstanding the ridiculous egotism and the trifling matters that are found in this work, it is but justice to observe that the views drawn by Mr. Garrard are exceedingly beautiful and well executed, but here again *Ego* appears, for Colonel T. is in general the principal figure in every engraving. The *egotism* of the author however, does not seem to have been an overbearing selfishness, for he was delighted with highland hospitality, which, though in many situations it must have been awkward enough, he always took in good part. This shews that if he was exceedingly well pleased with himself, he had also a disposition to be pleased with others. D.

Ανθρωπλανομενος: *or a Pedestrian Tour through Part of the Highlands of Scotland, in* 1801. *By* John Bristed. 2 *vols.* 8*vo.* 1*l.* 1*s.* *Wallis.*

It may be necessary before we take notice of the contents of these volumes, to refer our readers to our Journals for August 16, and September 1, 1803, where they will find some account of two absurd and mischievous publications, intitled "Critical and Philosophical Essays," and "Anthropaideia," by Andrew Cowan, M.D. These, with "The Adviser," a similar farrago of hypercriticism and *new* philosophistry, were dismissed at that time by our various periodical critics, with the contempt they deserved. Attempts, however, were made to foist them upon the public in various shapes, for insatiable is the zeal of our modern propagandists, and the present Tour appears to be a renewed attack on the common-sense and purses of the public, by again obtruding the unsold trumpery of these books, in the shape of a Tour undertaken by John Bristed and the said Andrew Cowan. Whether these are really two persons, or one, or whether John Bristed and Andrew Cowan be real or fictitious names, is questionable, but it is a question we shall not venture to investigate. John Bristed stands forth as the nominal author of the volumes before us, and Andrew Cowan as the person whose former works are to be abridged and re-puffed. This intimation becomes the more necessary, as it relieves us from the necessity of taking any but a very short notice of above half the work, which, in truth, exhibits the mutual "clawings and scratchings" of two book-makers, who in despite of paper and print, have entered into a copartnership of "puff and paste."

Of the justice of these remarks, the preface affords an instance, which at the same time very seasonably operates as a warning. If we except a Philippic against Bonaparte, which is rather singular from men of our traveller's principles, (for democracy leads decidedly to tyranny) and is as *apropos* here as a temporary clap-trap hitched into an old play; the whole, consisting of seventy-five closely printed pages, consists of an abridgement, under the disguise of a criticism, on the pernicious and fantastic "Anthropaideia" of Andrew Cowan. The extravagance of praise bestowed on this composition, has, indeed, much of the air of burlesque, and we should have pronounced it to be so in intention, did we not recollect that vanity and presumption are not satisfied with moderate applause.

The tour commences with a declaration of the author's intentions both in writing and travelling, "To instruct, we pretend not: innocently to beguile a tedious hour, and to amuse, without injury, is all our wish." Such an intention might have passed current, at least in preface, if unfortunately it were not destitute of any connexion with the work, more than a half of which consists of dissertations on subjects of politics, education, economies, &c. To assert that these are not meant to *instruct* is somewhat

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puzzling; if they are not intended for instruction, what is their purpose? not amusement surely, for we cannot suppose that the age is become so capricious as to forsake all legitimate sources of amusement for the *decies repetita* of republican principles and the sophisms of *modern philosophers*. We are scarcely less perplexed to discover a meaning for the words "innocently beguile a tedious hour, and to amuse without injury." Since we cannot, therefore, discover the author's intention by what he says, we must guess at it by what he does.

On this principle, the intention appears plainly, to misrepresent the state of society in Scotland, to exhibit the lower classes there as in the worst state of misery from oppression, to create, consequently, discontent wherever these pages may reach, and to exalt the laws and government of America, at the expence of those, not only of this, but every other country. That this is the *real* motive of the present work, almost every page affords most clear evidence. And what were the means adopted by our travellers as most likely to effect this valuable purpose? They preferred travelling in the garb of American sailors, which being soon worn out, or perhaps nearly worn out before they put it on,* gave them the appearance of the lowest mendicants. A scheme so preposterous can only be explained in their own language. They say, they adopted this dress, "because they conceived that no other mode would afford them so good an opportunity of surveying the beauties of the country, or give so great a facility of seeing and investigating the manners of the people unvarnished by courtesy, and undisguised by interest." From this curious passage, we learn first, that a squalid dress is eminently useful in viewing the picturesque beauties of a country; and secondly, that the manners of the people will be displayed without disguise to a man whose shoes and stockings are worn out, because, which is the fact throughout this tour, such masqueraders can associate only with the very lowest of the people! Absurd as this may appear, however, it suited the purpose of our travellers, as they found ample food for their spleen against the civil establishment of the country by listening to the complaints of those who in all countries are pretty much the same, and deserve as much to be considered *the people*, as the inhabitants of Dyot-street, St. Giles's, are to be considered as a fair specimen of the inhabitants of the metropolis. Another purpose appears to have been answered by this; their ragged condition, at a time when spies of all sorts were active in the service of the enemy, brought them under suspicion, and they were apprehended at Dundee, and not released until two persons appeared who attested that they had known them as students of medicine at Edinburgh. This is the most important event in the whole tour, and affords an admirable opportunity for reflections on our laws and government; they have even the modesty to speak of the "frigid caution and petty circumspection of a *timid* and *servile* nation." We might add a third advantage of travelling *in forma pauperis*. Persons in genteel life, or innkeepers of respectability are not over fond of receiving into their houses those whose appearance would empty them of more cleanly guests; and our travellers very artfully improve this into another source of reflections against the hospitality of Scotland. To all these advantages we may still subjoin the frequent appeals to the *sensibility* of their readers, by recording the large blisters on their feet, and the delicate memorandums of washing and shaving, not to speak of Andrew Cowan's *snoring* and *grunting*, which are very prominent features in his character, and prove that he is not one of Mr. Godwin's philosophers who can exist without the prejudice of drowsiness.

As to the adventures our travellers have recorded, they are, as may be expected from the class they associated with, of the very lowest order, and related in a style which is truly correspondent, being vulgar, nauseous, and abounding in filthy images and descriptions. But this is not the only objection; the hand of fiction is so visible in every thing that befalls them, and in every character they meet, that we have no scruple in saying, the greater part of the *narrative* is utterly unworthy of belief. Of such fiction, indeed, we always have the most convincing internal proof, when we find travellers giving us verbatim long speeches and dialogues to which no memory could do justice. It was likewise their practice in all interviews with the people to tell falsehoods of themselves, pretending they were American farmers, &c. This they very wittily call *bothering*, and when in this way they insulted the plain sense of the peasantry, they wondered that they entertained suspicions of them!

On these accounts, but principally on account of the style, we hope we shall be excused if we offer no specimen of the narrative part of the work, which, however, as already noticed, is the shortest.—The dissertations, if we mistake not, were the principal object, and these consist, in Vol. I. besides lesser articles, of a long discussion on the rights of women, extending to one hundred and thirty pages, written in the true cant of the Wolestonecraft school. Before we quit this volume, we shall give a short specimen of the principles of those travellers:—

"Among many other interesting topics we agitated the question, what effects were likely to be produced on the three learned professions, by expanding and invigorating the human intellect: and, after much discussion, which it would be tedious and superfluous to repeat, we brought ourselves to the opinion of which the following words are a summary and concise statement.

"The law, I mean the present power of its professors, being founded on the follies, the errors, and the iniquities of mankind, must become feeble and evanescent before the irresistible and progressively-widening blaze of the torch of truth, as the shades of darkness fly and are no more at the dawning of the orient beams.

"The gigantic power and the extensive sway of the clergy, as an established body, as a political institution, being created and supported by the ignorance and superstition of a bigoted and unenlightened people, must crumble into dust, and moulder into ruin, as obscurity of thought and imbecility of mind give way to the extended range of intellect, and the mild but steady and effectual energies of christianized philosophy.

"Let us not be misunderstood: far from us, and from our friends, be that senseless absurdity and destructive

* The whole tour occupied only 15 days, which it seems is sufficient to acquire a perfect knowledge of the manners of a whole nation!

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madness, which, by endeavouring to sap the foundations of religion, attempts to break the bruised reed, to poison the sources of felicity, and close, for ever, the avenues of hope upon a being so frail, feeble and helpless as is man."

This last paragraph is a tolerably ingenious sample of the condescension of modern philosophers to the *prejudices* of mankind. After throwing contempt on the establishments of revealed religion, they would fain be supposed to atone by a handsome compliment to a something that they wish to substitute in its stead.

In Vol. II. we have a profusion of Dissertations, some under the gentle name of hints, as "State of the Poor hinted at," in 15 pages: reflections against the profession of the army, very natural and characteristic; the "character of M'Naughton," a palpable piece of fiction, spread through 40 pages; a *word or two* on Burns, eked out by the help of quotations, in which, by the way, our book-makers are wonderful adepts, extends to 37 pages; and what is yet worse, 54 pages are necessary to prove, that "freedom, knowledge, and virtue go hand in hand:" a "*word or two* to great men," which would have been very acceptable in France in 1789, when she was erecting that stupendous fabric of republican equality, occupies here 41 pages; the Highlanders are "slightly touched" in 27 more, but the Scottish universities are honoured with no less than 97 pages, containing reflections on living and dead characters which betray the grossest ignorance and inconsistency; this is followed by a caricatura at the expence of apothecaries thirteen pages in length.

After this sketch of a work in which we have found so little to praise, it would be unnecessary to take notice of those lesser blemishes which are generally pointed out with a view to the correction of works that deserve to live. Men who travel that they may foster prejudices, and write that they may propagate them under the pretence of having confirmed them by facts, are among the incorrigibles who do not otherwise come within our province than as we feel it our duty to guard our readers against literary impositions of all kinds. R.

Popular Tales. *By* Maria Edgeworth. *3 vols.* 12*mo.* 15*s. Johnson.*

The name of Maria Edgeworth has been more than once prefixed to publications which have been received with approbation by the public. The work now under consideration will certainly not diminish the reputation she has already acquired both in this country and on the Continent. These tales were composed professedly with the view of being more particularly accessible to that numerous class of readers which does not belong to that of the nobility, clergy, or gentlemen of the learned professions. The object of the authoress appears to have been to convey entertainment and instruction in a style and manner calculated by their simplicity to interest the homely and unlearned, without disgusting by their vulgarity the learned and polite. The plan therefore is excellent, but not perhaps more excellent than the execution.

The first tale, entitled "Lame Jervas," is intended to point out the advantages of fidelity, sobriety, industry, modesty, and perseverance. *Jervas* was born in one of the tin mines of Cornwall, but by the exercise of the qualities above mentioned, raised himself to respectability and fortune. Here the manners of the miners are well-described, the absurd stories of ghosts and hobgoblins ridiculed, and the different characters that occur consistently and accurately preserved, which last observation applies equally to the whole of the tales. The next tale entitled, "The Will" is founded upon a singular testament made by a farmer in favour of three nephews, to each of whom he bequeathed a farm, and left ten thousand pounds to be given to whichever of them should be the richest at the end of ten years from the date of the Will. The object here is to inculcate a spirit of improvement, and at the same time to restrain speculation within the bounds of prudence. "The Limerick Gloves," is a story well calculated to ridicule local prejudices, and to generate an enlarged and liberal way of thinking. The Contrast between the effects produced by the two opposite maxims, "Out of debt, out of danger," and "Spend to day and spare to morrow," which forms the subject of the next tale, serves admirably to display the blessings of industry, and the misery that must ever attend a life of extravagance and profusion in people of narrow fortune.

The second volume commences with the tale, entitled "The Lottery," in which the folly of trusting for fortune rather to chance than industry is strikingly pointed out. The story of "Rosana," is an admirable example of the blessings of industry and contentment, contrasted with the miseries of ill-gotten wealth, accompanied with malice, envy and other vices. "Murad the Unlucky" conveys an excellent satire upon those who are continually complaining of their bad fortune and ascribing it to *fate*, when in fact it is owing to their own idleness or want of prudence. This volume concludes with the tale of "The Manufacturers" which is an additional display of the superior enjoyment of the sober and industrious compared with that of the prodigal and extravagant. The story entitled "The Contrast," with which the third volume commences, presents a striking view of the happiness which parents derive from children who have been properly educated, and the wretchedness they suffer from those of a contrary description. "The grateful Negro," exhibits the power of humanity and kindness which can melt the most savage heart, and which are a constant source of happiness not only to those to whom their good effects extend, but also those who are actuated by them. The work concludes with a tale, entitled, "To-morrow," which places the folly of a habit of procrastination in the most odious, striking, and ridiculous point of view.

The grand object of these tales is to encourage industry, economy, and virtue, in the middling and lower classes of the community, and to repress idleness, extravagance, and vice. No work can be conceived more likely to attain so desirable an end than that which is now under consideration. We have examined every tale with attention, and have no hesitation in declaring that they are all deserving of the most unqualified approbation, as there scarcely appeared a single instance in which any thing seemed

improper or out of place. The elegant simplicity of the style, the agreeable manner in which the incidents are related, the nice discrimination of character, all add a double poignancy to the satire. The incidents are those which most commonly occur in real life, and there are few readers but may find some faults or follies of their own lashed with satire, keen indeed, but not coarse nor ill natured. Here is no affectation, no vile sentimental cant, which under the appearance of rousing our feelings, in fact deadens them to every thing generous and honest, to every thing except to the extravagant adventures of heroes and heroines, and all such ravings of a distempered imagination. Indeed the incidents are so natural, and the traits of character so nicely marked in sentiment, expression, and manner, that the reader forgets he is perusing a fiction. The characters also are natural, and one piece of exquisite art in the authoress, or rather one instance of her penetration and ability in pourtraying characters is, that while many necessarily appear who are good in the main, though addicted to some favourite folly, she represents them so justly that though we cannot withhold our affection, yet nothing could induce us to be the characters described unless deprived of their follies. Whoever has attended to what passes in his own mind will easily perceive that this is much more likely to have a good effect than the most thundering satire against strange monsters of wickedness, of which black fraternity we hope the number is comparatively small. In a word this is one fortunate and singular instance where the *manner* of relating the stories, agreeable and interesting as it is, is more than equalled by the excellence of the *matter*. A wide circulation and a general perusal the work must certainly attain, and it is matter of congratulation to the friends of mankind that few, very few, can read these tales without being in some degree the better for it. D.

List of New Publications from May 1, to May 16, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, BIOGRAPHY, TRAVELS, &c.

The History of Scotland from the Union of the Crowns on the Accession of James VI. to the Throne of England, to the Union of the Kingdoms in the reign of Queen Anne. By Malcolm Laing. Esq. Vol. 3, 4. 8vo. (*) 18*s.*

The Life of George Washington, &c. &c. Compiled under the Inspection of the Hon. Bushrod Washington, from Original Papers bequeathed to him by his deceased Relative. To which is prefixed an Introduction, containing a Compendious View of the Colonies planted by the English on the Continent of North America, from their Settlement to the Commencement of that War which terminated in their Independence. By John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States, &c &c. Vol. I. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 1*s.* 6*d*

View of the Climate and Soil of the United States of America. Translated from the French of C. F Volney, with Maps, &c. 8vo. (*) 12*s.*

Observations on a short Tour made in the Summer of 1803, to the Western Highlands of Scotland. Interspersed with Original Pieces of Descriptive and Epistolary Poetry. 18mo. 4*s.*

This is a small volume, containing the remarks which the author made in a journey through the western highlands of Scotland. He traversed in a great measure those parts which had been visited by Doctor Johnson, and to help out his own narrative, gives an extract from the tour of that gentleman, whom he held in the most profound veneration. Superficial descriptions of the scenery sometimes occur, and some pleasant allusions are made to the customs of the highland *lasses*, especially to the practice of washing linen by beating it with their feet in a tub, during which operation the petticoats are held up with both hands, several degrees above *honi soit qui mal y pense*. There sometimes appears a ridiculous affectation in the author's manner of writing, particularly where he apostrophises his ink, which from its bad quality and stink, he affirms to be nothing better than a composition of soot and whiskey. The same conceit appears in the scraps of poetry inserted for which the author seems to have very little talent, though he is not entirely without taste.

The only part of the book which is of any importance, is the information it gives concerning the state of several parts of the highlands, and the misery occasioned by some cold and selfish landlords who oblige the inhabitants to emigrate in despair. The landlords are not without sordid excuses for this conduct which it would be easy to refute, but the author is very superficial here as in other parts of his work, and we are therefore precluded from entering fully upon the subject.

This short sketch we are informed in the preface, was composed for the author's friends, and not originally designed for publication. This apology is not a new one, and the world knows by this time how to appreciate such excuses. The style is in general simple, but the matter extremely superficial, and sometimes very silly. If the author valued himself upon being a scholar and a man of knowledge, he acted prudently in not putting his name to this specimen of his abilities.

Essays on History; particularly the Jewish, Assyrian, Persian, Grecian, and Roman; with Examinations for the Use of Young Persons. By John Holland, 12mo. (*) 5*s.*

POLITICS.

Facts better than Arguments, in a Letter to the Right Hon. Wm. Windham: from a Volunteer. 4*s.*

The object of the present pamphlet is to defend the late administration, from what the author terms the factious opposition of Mr. Windham and the Grenville party. He takes a view of the conduct of that administration since they came into office, and endeavours to prove that there was no foundation for the aspersions thrown upon it by the opposition. He then institutes a comparison between the merits of the late ministers and their predecessors, in which he gives the decided advantage to the former. This publication is well written, and the author places his arguments in a strong point of view. Several of the facts are also striking and well illustrated.

Patriotism; or the Love of our Country; an Essay illustrated by Examples from Ancient and Modern History; Dedicated to the Volunteers of the United Kingdom. By Wm. Frend, Esq. 8vo. (*) 7*s.*

THEOLOGY.

A Sermon Preached before the Society for the Suppression of Vice, on the 3d of May 1804. By

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Richard Watson. D.D. F.R.S. Lord Bishop of Landaff. 8vo. (*) 1*s.*

Lucifer, Gog, and Bonaparte; and the issue of the Present Contest, considered according to Divine Revelation; with an Appeal to Reason, on the errors of Commentators. By L. Mayer. 1*s.* 6*d.*

This is an *explanation* of the prophecies which, according-to the author, foretell the destruction of Bonaparte, who is characterized by the appellations of Gog, Lucifer and the Beast. Mr. Mayer is not the first who invented a theory, and then tortured the sacred writings for arguments to support the dreams of a licentious imagination.

An Attempt to Remove Prejudices concerning the Jewish Nation, by way of Dialogue. By Thomas Witherby, 8vo. (*)

FINE ARTS, SCIENCE, MEDICINE, &c.

Outlines from the Figures and Compositions upon the Greek, Roman and Etruscan Vases, of the late Sir William Hamilton, with Engraved Borders. royal 4to. *el.* 2*s.*

Hints for Picturesque Improvements in Ornamented Cottages, and their Scenery, including some Observations on the Labourer and his Cottage, in Three Essays. By Edmund Bartell, jun. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

Elements on Natural Philosophy; explaining the Laws and Principles of Attractions, Gravitation, Mechanics, Pneumatics, Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, Electricity, and Optics: with a General View of the Solar System, adapted to public and private Instruction; Illustrated with Diagrams. By John Webster, 8vo. (*)

An Experimental Inquiry into the Nature and Propagation of Heat. By John Leslie, 8vo. (*) 14*s.*

POETRY.

Good Tidings; or News from the Farm. A Poem. By Robert Bloomfield, 4to. (*) 2*s.* 6*d.*

NOVELS.

The Unexpected Legacy. A Novel. By Mrs. Hunter, of Norwich, 2 vols. 12mo. 9*s.*

We cannot refuse our approbation to the present novel, which rises considerably above the generality. The characters here are for the most part such as occur in ordinary life, and are also well marked. The authoress enforces the duty of morality and religion, not by turgid and nonsensical declamation, like the generality of novel writers, but by plain and natural examples of the peace and happiness enjoyed by those who are actuated in their conduct by moral and religious sentiments. The work is, besides, very amusing, and may be read without injury to the head or the heart.

Murray House; "a Plain unvarnished Tale." By Mrs. Parsons, 3 vols. 12mo. 15*s.*

This novel compared with many others of the same sort, may be considered as a *tolerable* publication. But it is liable in a high degree to that objection, which applies to the generality of novels, which is, that it abounds with extravagance, and an absurd cant about sentiment and sensibility, which, however fit they may be for heroines of romance, are but scurvy companions in the beaten track of real life. Such nonsense has always a tendency to enervate the mind, and render it unfit for ordinary duties. The faculties of the soul are perverted, the imagination becomes inflamed and distempered, and every object is seen through a false medium. Such is generally the effect of injudicious novel-reading, even when the general scope, as in the present instance, is intended to promote the ends of morality and religion.

Heliodora, or the Grecian Minstrel. Translated from the German of Baron Göthe, 3 vols. 12mo. 12*s.*

This story is possessed of considerable interest, and the feeling heart is immediately taught to pursue, with encreasing emotions of alternate sorrow and delight, the fate of the beautiful minstrel. Perhaps the doctrine of fatality is too much insisted upon, but the moral effect must be good upon the whole, as it appears to have been the aim of the author to shew that a guilty conscience is the greatest of evils, and that no man, whatever may be his misfortunes, can be completely wretched while he retains the *mens conscia recti*, or a pure and unsullied conscience. The translation is for the most part well executed, the language is good, and the spirit of the story preserved throughout.

Virtuous Poverty. A Novel. By Henry Siddons, Esq. (*) 13*s.* 6*d.*

A Picture from Life; or, The History of Emma Tankerville and Sir Henry Moreton. By Henry Whitfield, M.A. 2 vols. 12mo. 8*s.*

If this be a picture from life, it is life caricatured, and that too in such a miserable manner, that it produces not entertainment but disgust. There are some attempts at drawing characters, but they are only attempts, for no character is finished. There is also an extreme deficiency of incident, for the author spends often whole pages in what he no doubt thought witty remarks, but which the reader will think tedious and impertinent. Indeed there is an affectation of wit through the whole, that sometimes makes one smile, but it is a smile of derision mixed with pity. The whole is to the last degree dull and insipid. We know not how the author had the perseverance to write it, but we believe few will have the resolution to read it from beginning to end.

Essays on the Art of Being Happy. By Eugenia de Acton, 2 vols. 12mo. 8*s.*

This work has been unaccountably mislaid, for which perhaps some apology is due to the fair author. What is delayed, however, is not lost. We have read her work with pleasure, and can recommend it as a profitable addition to juvenile libraries, or to young persons about to enter into active life. Amidst so many guides and instructors, it is surely a paradox that "the art of being happy" should be so little known. Every attempt, therefore, to familiarize it, deserves commendation, even if it had less ability than the present, and in time we hope that our females, particularly those of high rank, may acquire more correct notions on the subject than they can pick up in the world of fashion.

The Woman of Feeling, 4 vols. 12mo. 16*s.*

A professed imitation of Sterne, and in some parts not unsuccessful, while the moral tendency is certainly far more obvious. But we are not *amateurs* of imitations, and this author seems capable of something more worthy of his pen, from his own resources. His *Woman of Feeling* is no extraordinary character, for all heroines of modern novels are provided with such a portion of feeling as to constitute their principal characteristic. He has placed her, however, in new situations, and she appears so amiable that we should not be sorry to meet with another "charming creature" of our author's creation.

MISCELLANIES.

Strictures upon an Historical Review of the State of Ireland; by Francis Plowden, Esq. 8vo. (*) 7*s.* 6*d.*

The Dance of Death; painted by H Holbein, and Engraved by W. Hollar, foolscap. 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.*

In the early ages of Christianity it was the practice to represent the fallacy of worldly pleasures, and the transitory nature of all our pursuits, by exhibiting upon the walls of the churches and in other situations several figures carried away by skeletons or *deaths* in the midst of their amusements and occupations. Of this kind is the *Dance of Death*, painted by Holbein and engraved by Hollar in the 16th century. The present work consists of a short essay on the origin and progress of these *dances*, and on the present one in particular. It then describes the cuts in Holbein's *Dance of Death*, and concludes with a short account of a Dance of Death found in the old cathedral of St. Paul's, invented by a foreign artist called *Macaber*, and brought into England by John Lydgate, a monk of the Benedictine Abbey of Bury, in Suffolk, in the reign of Henry VI. The appearance and attitudes of *Death* in the cuts are remarkably grotesque and ludicrous, and whatever impression they might make in former times, they are now very likely to excite laughter. In one cut, death is playing upon a fiddle before Adam and Eve when they are driven out of Paradise, in another he is playing on a dulcimer, and in another beating a drum. Some of the emblems are however, very beautiful, especially that of the old man who follows the sound of the dulcimer, and like an infant wishes to handle it. This is a curious and interesting publication. Former editions of it had become extremely scarce.

Galatea: a Pastoral Romance from the French of Monsieur Florian. By Miss Highley, fcap. 8vo. 7*s.*

This little pastoral romance is the first work of the immortal Cervantes. It was translated into French by Monsieur Florian, and from him into English by our authoress. In the time of Cervantes, Spain was more addicted to gallantry and romance than any nation in Europe. Cervantes was led away by the prevailing taste, and accordingly in the present work his shepherds are philosophers, who harangue metaphysically on the nature of love, and quote authorities like a chancery pleader. Allowing for the extravagancies of the times, this is a beautiful little story, and the genius of Cervantes breaks forth in spite of its shackles. The present translation is neatly executed. A very judicious preface is given by the French translator M. Florian.

The Experienced Officer; or, Instructions by the General of Division, Francis Wimpffen, to his Sons, and to all Young Men intended for the Military Profession: with an Introduction. By Lieut. Colonel Macdonald. 8*s.*

CORRESPONDENCE.

Letter from Dr. Noehden.

Eton, May 16, 1804.

Mr. Editor,

In reading a paper called the Classic, N° II. inserted in the Literary Journal for May 1804, I could not help feeling considerable regret at the manner, which the author of that paper has adopted for treating his subject. He displays an unjustifiable degree of asperity towards a description of literary characters, to whom, whatever their failings may be, the learned world stands highly indebted. It appears, that from some imperfections to be observed in the writings of what are called Commentators, he has conceived a violent prejudice against them; and this unfavourable notion he is most earnestly desirous to corroborate within himself, and to propagate among others. He, therefore, launches out into excessive declamation, and applies the lash of his criticism with an indiscriminate severity. Not a Drachenborch, Heynè, or Brunck escape from his chastisement. I deplore the fate of a Hemsterhuis, and a Bentley, who I apprehend, will shortly, with other delinquents, be brought to the place of execution.

I must confess, that I cannot commend Crinitus for his judgment and discretion in this mode of proceeding. It is not clear to me, what advantage can result from searching out the faults, if such there are, of men, who have deserved well of the Republic of Letters; and thus raising an outcry against them. That the Commentators have done much towards re-establishing the knowledge of the Classic authors, and that this knowledge has produced the greatest benefit in restoring and promoting science and literature, who is so ignorant as to deny? That in executing their duty these men (if we chose to speak of them collectively) may have fallen into errors, and deviated into abuses, is, from the frailty of human nature, no matter for wonder. But should we, on that account, overlook their general merits, despise their laborious exertions, and unmercifully subject them to a partial censure? Is it well considered, to prejudice (if Crinitus's opinions may be supposed to have that tendency) any readers against a useful kind of study; in which they are taught by him to see nothing but failure? I do not assert, that in turning over the Commentators, mistakes may not be discovered in particulars, and abuses in general: but why should these be selected for a paper which can only be meant to amuse or instruct; or if they were to be selected, why are they not produced fairly, and set before the reader in such a manner as to obviate a general disregard, which may thence originate? It is a failing of some of the Commentators to indulge in unguarded expressions against those whom they think in error, and to offend against liberality by yielding to the impulse of invective. Our author speaks of their garrulity and impertinence: would it not seem, that he himself had imperceptibly caught this unfortunate disorder?

After this introductory remonstrance, it becomes me to remark, that the particular allegations of Crinitus, if submitted to an accurate analysis, would not stand the scrutiny of examination. This I will merely state as my *opinion*, as it is not my purpose now to enter into a detailed inquiry about all his assertions. But I am anxious to set him right in what he advances respecting Mr. Heyne. First, I think, he has not well chosen the epithets with which he distinguishes Heynè's Preface to his edition of Homer. He calls that preface *massive* and *petulant*. If he has not judged of it by the simple *coup d'œil*, and on that founded his phraseology, I request him to read it over once more, and to reflect, whether there is much matter that is irrelevant, or whether, with his own talents for brevity, he could have comprised the different topics in more concise language. If he cannot persuade himself of these two points, he must acknowledge, that he has injudiciously bestowed a *mas-*

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sive epithet. It will then, at the same time follow, that the other expression, *petulant*, is not deserved by Mr. Heynè, but must return, as being inapplicable where it was intended, to Crinitus himself. The second mistake to be rectified, is the information to which Crinitus pretends, concerning Mr. Heynè's method of composing his comments. Speaking of Heynè's Excursus to the *nexus*, in the sixth book of the Æneid, he honours it with his approbation, (it does not, however, sufficiently appear, whether it is the first Excursus alone, which he commends, or all the following that are connected with the same subject); and he continues thus: "I have before said that these comments are the works of his pupils; but I have no doubt that his superintendence collected and arranged the very excellent and apposite quotations with which that treatise abounds. Crinitus has probably represented Mr. Heynè to his imagination, as an artisan, who keeps a number of journeymen, and does himself nothing, but cut out and superintend the work of others: I can only affirm the fact not to be so. In making this assertion, I hope my testimony will not be questioned, when I mention, that I have myself been a pupil of Mr. Heynè's, and employed by him in the labours, which he assigns to his young friends, perhaps as largely as any of my associates. And to support my pretension it will be enough to refer the reader to the edition of Homer; Preface, Vol. I. p. 17 and 19. Prolegomena, Vol. III. p. 63, 65, 91, 100, 101, 102, 106, 110. Being so circumstanced, I feel myself called upon by a regard to truth, and a desire to remove erroneous ideas, which might be occasioned by statements like those of Crinitus, to explain the subject. Mr. Heynè, being at the head of classical literature in the university of Gottingen, has by appointment of government a limited number of young men under his immediate care, and particular instruction. They are formed into a society, which is called 'The Philological Seminary,' (*Seminarium Philologicum*). They may, in the strictest sense of the word, be considered as *his pupils*; though his instruction, as afforded in his lectures is open to all the members of the university. The fellows of the Philological Seminary are employed by him in various occupations, calculated to promote the object of their studies: and occasionally he avails himself of their industry in executing some subordinate offices belonging to him as an Editor. The work that he generally delegates to them, is: the making of indices, collecting various readings, collating manuscripts, and correcting the press. In the edition of Homer he allotted to some of them the task of looking for quotations, made from Homer in other classic authors; see his Preface, vol. i. p. 19 and 20: and in the first edition of Pindar, he entrusted one of his pupils with the charge of rectifying the Latin version. A person of judgment will be aware, that these delegated offices are concerned in matters of a secondary nature, which inferior abilities may accomplish nearly as well as superior talents. Mr. Heynè, therefore, acts wisely in saving his own time and labour (for which, I can assure Crinitus, there is, from the station Mr. Heynè occupies in the University, a most ample demand) by committing those tasks to others, instead of drudging through them himself (which would be impossible): especially as he thus attains two objects, that of promoting his own undertakings, and of benefiting his disciples. I am inclined to consider the latter as the most striking advantage. Having said this, I should be surprized, if a little reflection would not suggest to any man the impossibility of turning the assistance of others to such a use as Crinitus seems to have conceived. He imagines, that a literary production of merit and genius, may be patched up from the promiscuous helps and contributions of others. But let your superintendence be ever so able, you will hardly have it in your power to effect any thing 'excellent or apposite,' in this manner. Superficial notions of this sort sometimes find their way into public; but when they are taken up, and credited by men, who would be thought scholars, they prove a glaring want of judgment, and a reprehensible kind of ignorance in matters, with the nature of which those men should be better acquainted.

Before I conclude, I will take notice of some expressions, which Crinitus makes use of in speaking of *Brunck*. When he upbraids this Editor with *peevish cavilling*, we may attribute the censure to his own partiality for candour and good temper. But we shall find it difficult to exculpate him from the charge of harshness and illiberality in calling that great scholar, *a bankrupt Commentator*. If I am rightly informed, it was owing to private misfortunes and disappointments, arising chiefly from the consequences of the French revolution, that Brunck was not only reduced in his domestic circumstances, but also so harassed in mind, that, incapable of recovering his spirits, he threw away from him, with disgust, even those pursuits, in which for many years he had been engaged with great satisfaction to himself, and the highest benefit to others. The unfortunate condition of a man, whose merits cannot fail to be esteemed by those who know how to appreciate them, we might suppose, would have excited compassion instead of insult on the part of those, who, if scholars, ought to be conscious of their obligations to him: but all he has obtained at the hands of Crinitus, is the appellation of *a bankrupt Commentator*.

I am, &c.

G. H. Nozhden.

Of Hall's Versification, Language, &c. (*See p.* 428.)

Multa renascentur quæ jam cecidere; cadentque,
Quæ nunc sunt in honore vocabula: si volet usus,
Quem penes arbitrium est jus, et norma loquendi.
Hor. Ar. Poet. l. 70.

The age of Elizabeth has been long distinguished for its rapid advances in polite literature. Classic modulation had no longer confined itself to its native country; and the arts of composition were cultivated with equal zeal in Italy and England. The poets of this age, we are told, "attained an art of modulation which was afterwards neglected or forgotten."* And a comparison of Donne and Hall's satyric writings

* Johnson's Life of Waller.

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will confirm the observation. *Hall* was attentive to his rhymes; *Donne* often suffered his thought and his rhyme to struggle together, and they became alternately predominant.† *Hall's* poetry flows steadily; while *Donne's* is like a troubled stream, sometimes ruffled by circling eddies, and sometimes foaming in sudden turns. The allusions of *Hall's* poetry run in a strain truly classical, while those of *Donne* are too strongly tinctured with scholastic subtlety. Yet let it not be thought that I am calumniating the works or the abilities of *Donne*. His Satires undoubtedly have vigour, but it is the unwieldy vigour of the elephant; while *Hall's* unite strength with free exertion. The wit, the vigour, and the honesty of *Donne's* Satires were, no doubt, well suited to the age he wrote in, but his transitions are too abrupt, his comparisons too elaborate, and his language too much shackled by the awkwardness of learning, to suit an age more polished than his own. Let it not, however, be imagined that I am desirous of resting *Hall's* reputation on *comparative Praise*. I have contrasted him with *Donne* for no other purpose than to show the reader that his Satires are more extensively useful: That if *Hall* does not strive to astonish him by the power of his poetry, he seldom fails to win him by the ease and propriety of his remarks: that without the rude vigour of *Donne's* Muse, he has reprobated both the foibles and the coarser vices of mankind with polished energy.

At the time Hall wrote, our language, which had become adequate to all the purposes of use and elegance, was declining. Innovations from the Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian tongues had become prevalent,‡ and Hall has more than once glanced at them:—

> "There if he can with terms *italianate*
> Big sounding sentences, and words of state," &c.
> *B.* 1. *Sat.* 8.

† "For better for worse take me or *leave me*
To take and leave me is *adultery*." *Sat.* 1.
"And till our souls be *unapparelled*
Of bodies, they from bliss are *banished*." *Ibid.*
Such substitutes for rhyme remind one of Horace's
"Legitimumque sonum *digitis* callemus et aure."

‡ Why the Latin and French tongues gained so great an ascendancy in our language is easily discovered. And for the prevalence of *Spanish* and *Italian*, we are indebted to the restoration of Literature under Leo the Tenth, and to the resort of the Spanish nobility to the English court under Philip and Mary.

They who are acquainted with Spenser's models will not be surprised to find him occasionally introducing a scrap of Italian:

> "And every knight and every gentle squire,
> Gan choose his dame with *bascio mani* gay.
> F. Q. *B.* iii. *C.* i. *st.* 36.

I kiss your hands; a piece of Italian gallantry. But instances of this occur in Chaucer:

> "But nathelesse the lacke of our favour
> Ne maie not doe me syng though that I die
> *J'ay tout perdu mons temps et mon labeur*,
> For finally Fortune I doe defie."
> Balade of the Village without painting. *l.* 5.

Gascoyne in his poems 1587, 4to, p. 114 quotes *French* in a similar manner:

> "The wreath was silver poudred all with shot
> About the which *goutte du sang* did twine."

To the restoration of Literature too it is perhaps owing that our poets sometimes gave a Latin turn to the words that had long borne a different sense;—so Drayton:

> "By Hecat's names, by Proserpine's sad tears
> When she was *rapt* to the infernal Bower."
> "When Mævio's first page of his Poesy,
> Nail'd to an hundred posts for Novelty,
> With his big title an *Italian mot*."

So Marston in his Satires, 1598:

> "I cannot quote a *motte Italianate*,
> Or brand my Satires with a *Spanish terme*."
> *Proeme. b.* 2.

Mr. Warton, in his Observations on the Fairy Queen,* has given as much information on this subject as the most inquisitive reader of our ancient poetry can stand in need of. I shall add that about 1580 the books of the Stationers' Company abound with entries of Italian works and translations from them. And that Sir Thomas Cheek, one of the brightest ornaments of the Elizabethan age, from an abhorrence of foreign expressions, constantly wrote Saxon English.† To this aversion to exotic terms it is owing that Hall has preserved so many expressions which have long fled from vulgar use. He clearly saw with Spenser, that our language was "both full enough for prose, and stately enough for verse." But Spenser frequently introduced words from a foreign tongue in conformity with the sameness of his rhymes. A censure from which Hall is free.

There is another liberty, which the rigid criticism of the present age recoils at, but which the poets of the Elizabethan were far from thinking unnatural. I mean the formation of words from analogy. Of these words Spenser perhaps contributed to our language a larger stock than the generality of writers, for as the Italian poetry was of a similar turn with that which Hall complains of, as

> "Wearying echo with one changeless word;"

So Spenser from the monotony of his verse was frequently driven to forge his substantives which are usually formed in *ment*; such were *gesture*MENT, *gaze*MENT, *tende*MENT, *unruli*MENT, and others too numerous to mention. Of these formations Hall seems to have been a willing encourager, thinking it less blameable to form words from analogy, than to endanger the stability of our language, by the unqualified introduction of exotic terms. Of Spenser's formations Bishop Hall has made occasional use, but I know not that he has moulded any himself.

Nor was this the only liberty of dispensing with the rules of language taken by the best of our early poets. When the Grecian bards were desirous of lengthening or paring away the pronunciation of a word, they applied themselves for help to the various dialects of their tongue. But for the English poets there was no such refuge; and they supplied its place by setting the regulations of accent at defiance. To such desultory means alone can we attribute our present ignorance of the metrical art of our ancient poets.

Chaucer, *Gower*, and *Lidgate*, were frequently unsettled when regulating the cadence of their words,‡

Here, *rapt* no longer expresses the exstatic violence of passion, but has the Latin acceptance of *violated, snatched*. And Spenser uses *convenable* for *agreeable*, through the medium of the French, and *intendement* for *attention*. But the latent effects of *Classic reading* on the poetry of this age, will be more fully considered among the MISCELLANEOUS REMARKS.

* Vol. I. p. 127.

† Strype's Life of Sir Thos. Cheek. p. 218.

‡ This was a circumstance which the genius of CHATTERTON

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nor is it to be supposed they would always even endeavour to avoid this fluctuation of sound. They sometimes, no doubt, adopted a peculiarity of accent in compliance with a rhyme, at others it might give an easy finish to their metre, and caprice would occasionally require it in an authoritative manner. Such was the state of accent when Hall wrote. Nor were the Poets always determined in their accentuation. Hall has *pavement* and *pavèment*; *nevèr* and *never*; *storiè* and *stòrie*; *mèlancholy* and *melàncholy*. But to multiply instances were endless. Spenser has used this relaxation of restraint in greater amplitude, he has *nàthlesse*, *nathèlesse*, and *nathlèsse*. Hall extended it even to proper names, and *Gùllion* and *Gullìon* occur within five lines. But Spenser has taken a far greater liberty; he has *Alkmæna* and *Alcumena*.

The poets of this day, too, claimed a privilege of spelling many of their words in conformity to rhyme: Here again we must refer to Spenser, whose Fairy Queen supplies us with every species of poetic licence. Of these words he has given innumerable instances; for exclusive of what he had seen in Chaucer, his intimate acquaintance with the Italian poets rendered this kind of licence familiar to him. Of the Italian words, however, which, in compliance with different rhimes are allowed to be differently spelt, we are told the number is now so fixed that no modern poet is suffered to increase it. From Spenser then I shall cite two or three instances; of whose poetry, Hall possessed high though chastened notions:

> "But let no rebel Satyr dare traduce
> Th' eternal legends of thy Faerie Muse
> Renowned Spenser, whom no earthly wight
> Dares once to emulate much less dares despight.
> Salluste of France and Tuscan Ariost
> Yield up the laurell girlond ye have lost.—
> *B.* i. *Sat.* 1.

And then give a few of those which occur in Hall. Spenser who in the usual way has been moderate in his claims upon this species of licence has in one instance, I fear, ventured even beyond the exemplars of Italy:

> "With beastly sin thought her to have *defilde*
> And made the vassal of his pleasure VILDE."
> F. Q. *B.* i. *C.* vi. *st.* 3.

> "The heardes out of their foldes were loosed QVIGHT
> And he amongst the rest crept forth in sory *plight*.
> F. Q. *B.* iii. *C.* x. *st.* 52.

> "And of her own foul entrailes makes her *meat*
> Meat fit for such a monster's monstrous DIEAT."
> F. Q. *B.* vi. *C.* xii. *st.* 31.

> "Whom after did a mightie man PVRSEW
> Ryding upon a Dromedare on hie
> Of stature huge, and horrible of HEW.
> That would have maz'd a man his dreadful face to VEW.
> F. Q. *B.* iv. *C.* viii. *st.* 38.

In the last, as in many other instances, the rhimes seem to have been made for the eye rather than the ear. Or perhaps the poet was desirous of accommodating the jingle to both. Similar examples I shall here exhibit from Hall:

> "Would she but shade her tender browes with *bay*
> That now lye bare in careless wilful rage,
> And trance herself in that sweet EXTASEY.
> Def. to Envy. *St.* 6.

> "Which he reares up quite PERPENDICULARE
> That the mid church doth spighte the chancel's *fare*."
> *B.* iv. *Sat.* 7.

> "To see the Pope's black knight a cloaked *frere*
> Sweating in the channel like a SCAVENGERE."

ABVSION, B. ii. Sat. 7. occurs in conformity with *Scorpion*, and in the same Satire, SENCE, for *since* jingles with *pretence*; QUEARE too, B. ii. Sat. 1. for *Quire* answers to *deare*. It must however be observed that when satirizing poetry, Hall was peculiarly attentive to poetic harmony. So careful was he of giving any hold to those who might feel the smart of his Satire.

From this absurdity of spelling words in conformity with rhyme, Mr. Warton has shewn that Milton was by no means free. *Cowley* was I believe the last of our writers who made violent use of this expedient, in the Chronicle of his Mistresses:

> "Gentle Henrietta THAN
> "And a third Mary next *began*."

Among the subordinate species of poetic licence ranks Elision; and one or two remarkable instances of it occur in the Satires; such as in the present age are not allowed:

> "Meanwhile if chance some DESP'RATE patient die
> COM'N to the period of his destinie."

In the prologue to the third book we have UTT'RING, and in its fourth Satire KNOW'T, for the purpose of rhiming with *devout*.

Elision it is highly probable introduced among us another liberty of its own kind, of adding or dropping a syllable in a word for the sake of metre; a licence of which Hall has been far more liberal than of Elision. B. v. Sat. 1. RESPONDENCE occurs for CORrespondence, and just before

> "He may take VANTAGE of the vacancy."

So B. ii. Sat. 2. ASSAINE for *assayen*; this is to compleat a rhyme. B. ii. Sat. 4. DECRÈÈD and DAMÒSELL; Sat 7. OSTÈLERE. B. iii. Sat 1. SAFÈTIE, and B. iii. Sat. 7. AMÀZON.

> "One lock AMÀZON-*like* dishevelled."

This liberty too was of great advantage to Spenser; a habit which his Editors thought he got from the Italian poets, and forgot the example had been set him by 'Dan Chaucer.'

In his Daphnaida, Spenser has abridged one syllable in a way, which to those who are unused to these poetic licences, may seem remarkable.

> "But casting up a s'DEIGNFUL eye at me."

The s'DEIGN of Spenser is possibly the *alto sdègno* of the Italians, which he exactly copied in his favourite *high disdain*. The Italian *sdegnare* too perhaps gave rise to Milton's

> "I s'DEIGNED subjection, and thought one step higher
> Would set me high'st." Par. Lost. *B.* iv. *l.* 60.

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was unheedful of: and we may perhaps adduce it as a proof sufficiently strong, in itself, to refute the once boasted authenticity of Rowley's Poems.

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And here may be remarked that Hall has furnished us with but one instance of the pronunciation of the final *e*:

"A smith at Vulcan's owne forge upbrought."
B. ii. *Sat.* 1.

This was much used in the infancy of our poetry, but in the age Hall lived probably ranked among the "aged accents" which Daniel reprehended in his Sonnets.*

Expletives too, though once of consideration in our language, in Hall's time were not often used, but to prop a hobbling line. And Hall it is probable was himself of this opinion, for he has used but one:

"That nothing was in pale or hedge *Ypent*."
B. v. *Sat.* 2.

And here I present the reader with a single specimen of inversion, where the auxiliary verb only, is placed before the nominative case:

"*Could no unhusked acorn leave the tree*,
But there was challenge made whose it might be."†

The prose works of Sir Thomas More were replete with inversions which it is probable he derived from his fondness for the Classics.

Such were the poetical licences of which Hall availed himself; and I know not that we can censure him for irregularity: since to try the poetry of the Elizabethan age by the critical standard of succeeding times would be unreasonable.

As it is incumbent on a Commentator to be ingenuous on his author's defects as well as his beauties; I shall without farther apology enumerate two or three passages where Hall has omitted the relative:

"Here may you Muses, our dear soveraignes
Scorne each base lordling *ever you disdaines*."
B. ii. *Sat.* 2.

where WHO is omitted

"To raise the lewd *rent to their lord decreed*."
B. ii. *Sat.* 7.

Here the deficiency of WHICH, renders the sense imperfect.

THAT for THAT WHICH was a common fault in the poetry of the times we are treating of, as

"But THAT he most would gaze and wonder at."
B. iv. *Sat.* 7.

"THAT *cause men stop* their noses when they read."
B. ii. *Sat.* 1.

Here we have a double failure, first of the article, then of the particle TO, which denotes the second verb to be the object of the first; so *B.* ii. *Sat.* 7:

"Thus learn'd I by the sighes his GRIEF REMOVE."

Again, *B.* iii. *Sat.* 2:

"And father Janus *taught the new found vine*
Rise on the elme, with many a friendly twine."

Of the first of these, Mr. Warton has given several instances in his Observations on the Fairie Queen of Spenser, (vol. ii. p. 7.) one afforded by our Liturgy. "To do alway THAT is righteous in thy sight:" and of the second from the Fairie Queen itself. *B.* i. *C.* x. *st.* 43:

"Had charge the tender orphanes of the dead
And widows ayde."‡

Of these elleipses many more examples might be cited—but to multiply instances were unnecessary.

The greatest fault of our Satyrist's versification seems to have been in the admission of broken lines. A deduction from its merit of a very trivial nature when we call to mind that it was frequently practiced by the greatest of his contemporaries. Instances of this kind may be found in Dryden's Religio Laici, again in Absalom and Achitopel; and twice in the last parting of Hector and Andromache. Yet it must be owned that broken lines are seldom found in the works of those who had either time or opportunity to lop exuberance. In Dryden, negligence was habitual. In Addison's poetry I remember but two instances, and those in a juvenile performance.

Hall sometimes puts the weak rhyme first, as in the Defiance to Envy:

"Witness ye Muses how I wilful SONG
These heady rhimes withouten second care
And wish'd them worse my guilty thoughts *among*."—

But for this we have authority from some of our best poets.

Nor must it be forgotten that Hall ranks among the earlier writers who made use of triplets. Triplets are to be found in Phaer's Virgil, 1558. And a poem in the relieved triplet verse occurs among Sir Thomas Wyat's pieces: but they were never much used till Dryden established them.

At the time Hall wrote, the Saxon was still visibly mixed in our language. He has many words which have long yielded to the invasion of foreigners; some which have been supplanted by the arbitrary formations of analogy; and others which are only found in provincial pronunciation. He has not unfrequently used the ancient plural of the substantive, as *eyne* for eyes, *treen* for trees, *pullen* for chickens, and *shoon* for shoes; as well as the old formation of the verb, in *been*,‖ *rusten*, *circlen*, *hopen*, *delven*, *layne*, *wexen*, *wonn'd* for wended, and others. Nor was he entirely free from the corruptions and confusions of language still often prevalent in common discourse.

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* "Let others sing of Knights and Palladines
In aged accents and untimely words:
Paint shadows in imaginary lines
Which well the reach of their high wits records."
Son. 52.

Hall has likewise furnished us with one or two instances where the final *e* usually sounded is quiescent, as

"And *Pyrene* sweet turn'd to a poison'd head." &c.

† This position is I believe seldom found in modern writers of good authority; if we except Collins, when describing the musical Efforts of Revenge in his Ode to the Passions:

"Revenge impatient rose;
He threw his blood-stain'd sword in thunder down
And with a withering look
The war-denouncing trumpet took,
And blew a blast so loud and dread,
Were ne'er prophetic sounds so full of woe."

‡ Sir Philip Sydney, Astrophel and Stella, *st.* 6, has

"Some Lovers speak when they their Muses entertaine
Of hopes begot by feare, OF WOT NOT WHAT DESIRES."

‖ The third person plural of the verb, Saxon formation: Yet this formation was often assigned to words taken from the Latin or French; thus Sir John Mandeville writing of Egypt, "for thei may not ENLARGEN it toward the Desart for defaute of watre." And in the same description when writing of *Cairo* he mentions "the comoun hows at *Cayre*," and adds, "thei that kepen that Hows COVREN hem with hete of hors dung."

But whatever opinion the reader may have formed from these Observations on Hall's language, let him remember that though our Satyrist studied not to embellish the English idiom. Yet his poetry and his expression are less mixed with the barbarities of phrase than those of his contemporaries.

The cast of romance usually given to the poetry of his day, he rejected, and of necessity that scope of language which it countenanced. His refuge to the ancient formations of the verb or noun, when not intirely disused, is certainly to be commended; or even allowing them to have been dropped, that they may sometimes be laudably revived, we have the opinion of Dryden, supported by one of the most discriminating writers of antiquity, in the motto I have prefixed to this section.

(To be Continued.)

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° IX.

At pulchrum est digito monstrari, & dicier, hic est!
PERSIUS.

How charming 'tis for beaux and belles to see
The pointing people cry—"'tis he! 'tis she!"

I HAVE always looked upon the design of the Exhibition of the Royal Academy at Somerset-House as a national honour. It is intended to give the artist a fair opportunity of displaying his talents; and whether the desire of reputation or money be uppermost with him, he will be excited to employ his utmost efforts to excel, when he knows that so many competitors have an equal opportunity of attracting the public eye.

As I go in good earnest to see the pictures, and am not yet old enough, nor virtuoso enough, to fix my gaze immoveably on the Venuses and Hebes of the Academicians, while I am every moment jostled by groupes of cherubs which set their pencils at defiance; I usually let several days pass, after the opening of the exhibition, and at length venture in when I imagine that something newer to be seen, has carried off the greater part of the visitors. By a procrastination which those who do not know me might think unaccountable, two weeks had this year almost elapsed, and every soul in town had seen the Exhibition before I could get thither from my apartments in Spring-gardens. On entering the rooms, however, instead of finding them half-empty as I expected, I perceived to my great astonishment that I should with difficulty be able to squeeze myself into any situation from which a picture could be seen. There was likewise something uncommon in the appearance of the spectators. There was not that giddy bustling from one picture to another by which in former times I had been so much annoyed. Every one seemed to have chosen his station; and although both ladies and gentlemen made frequent tours of two or three yards among the crowd, yet they still returned without delay to the favourite picture which seemed to be their unvarying centre of attraction.

I was a little puzzled to explain this new appearance; and had begun to imagine that the public were at length determined to examine each picture in its turn with attention, and fairly to decide on the respective merits of the rival artists. The mystery however was quickly cleared up to me by a young gentleman in a drab coat, who made repeated circuits round half the room, and by means of a little crooked knobby broom-stick, contrived to attract the attention of every one whose shoulder he encountered. His motions indeed bore a strong resemblance to those of the honey-bird of warm climates. This little animal on discovering a hive in the hollow of a tree, immediately goes in quest of some of those people who are sent into the woods in search of honey; and having found them, it keeps fluttering and humming around, till it prevails on them to follow it to the spot where the treasure is concealed. In the same manner this young gentleman, when he succeeded in catching any one's eye, was careful to direct it towards the object of his admiration. Two or three brushes of his knobby stick had induced me to follow him with my eye to the spot where he always halted in his circuits; and observing his looks I quickly discovered the object on which they were so often fixed. The painter had not only taken the features with considerable exactness; but the drab coat, the neckcloth, and the shirt all so exactly corresponded, that one might have imagined the youth to have been at great pains to dress after his picture. Although the colouring was a little too high, and the features somewhat better than nature had made them, yet it was nothing more than what is very allowable in a painter who wishes to be employed; and a very neatly gilt frame set off the whole to the best advantage.

After examining the portrait in the drab coat, much to the satisfaction of the young gentleman who all the while kindly placed himself so as to enable me to compare the copy with the original; I set about applying the discovery I had made to solve the other unaccountable appearances that had fallen in my way. I was now no longer at a loss to discover the cause of that attraction which seemed to fix the attention of almost every person present to some particular point, and to throw over the whole an appearance of good humour and satisfaction which is rarely found in a company assembled to look at pictures.

I now for the first time observed the wonderful improvement which had been introduced into the Exhibition of this year. I have often quarrelled with a finely executed portrait, because, being unacquainted with the original, I was unable to determine whether the likeness was a just one or not. But here this defect was completely remedied: for I had no sooner fixed my eye on a portrait than in two seconds the original was full in view to enable me to judge of its merits. I own I was much delighted with this new improvement; and although I am ignorant of the real circumstance which suggested the idea, yet I can conceive several which prove it to be a very happy one. It is possible that the artists, conscious of the truth of their pictures, have prevailed on those who sat for them to appear and prove to the public their superior skill. It is possible also, that the artists were under the necessity of making no such applications, and

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knew that merely hanging up a picture was abundantly sufficient to attract the original.

But be that as it may, the Academicians have very prudently turned the circumstance to the best advantage. They seem indeed to have been well convinced that every portrait they hang up, secures at least one daily spectator; and the number of portraits, which this year fill every corner of the rooms, therefore deserves on many accounts peculiar commendation. It shews a laudable attention to the funds of the Academy, as no more certain lure could be devised to attract a crowd of spectators, and consequently a shower of shillings and sixpences. Of this I am thoroughly convinced, for I have several times since my first visit always found the rooms crowded, and the same persons always occupying nearly the same situation. By hanging up so many portraits, the Academicians have consulted in a high degree, both the emolument and improvement of the artists at large. For if the greatest crowd be by this means attracted, the fairest opportunity is offered for having their fame widely circulated; and it is evident that landscapes and historical paintings must ever want the advantage of having the copy compared with the original. Much must also be done by this means to improve the national taste; as a person, who studies one picture with accuracy, must profit much more than he who passes in a careless manner over the whole exhibition. From what I observed there, I am convinced several hundred males and females have got the foundations of *virtù* laid in their souls this year at Somerset-house.

For these and many more reasons, the Council of the Royal Academy, as well as the hangers-up, deserve the public thanks of the nation, for the overflowing abundance of portraits to which they have this year given place. If they go on in the same laudable course, we may soon expect to see inanimate landscapes and fancy pieces, that no one cares about, entirely banished from the scene; and nothing but the "human face divine" to meet the eye of the beholder in every direction. To accomplish this happy end as soon as possible, I would advise them, as a sincere admirer of their discernment, to persevere in their efforts, and not to admit one picture of another description while a single scrap of portrait is to be found.

I might point out many more advantages to be derived from this plan, if I thought any additional inducements were wanting to those who have the direction of the business. There certainly cannot be a better mode, for a lady who wishes to dispose of herself by matrimony or otherwise, to make her charms generally known, than having her picture hung up at the exhibition. It is certainly a much more advisable way than by advertisements in the newspapers. Fathers of a limited income, who cannot afford many balls and routs, may by means of a family groupe, introduce his daughters at once to a very large circle of acquaintance: and a husband who has a pretty wife that he can well spare, may by shewing her here, attract a sufficient number of admirers without being liable to any ill-natured imputations at Doctor's Commons. It would indeed greatly forward the views of the parties, as well as encrease the curiosity of the visitors, which is fatigued with the perpetual repetition of the word *portrait* without a name, if the intention with which each lady's picture was hung up, were stated in the catalogue: unless perhaps it is to be understood that every lady who is not already provided, is to be considered as appearing there with only one intention. With regard to the married ladies, it is only necessary to subjoin the words "portrait of a *married* lady," to their number in the catalogue; for surely the intention of the husband cannot be doubtful, who has allowed a painter to gloat over the half-naked charms of his wife, and delineate her in those voluptuous attitudes, which so often attract notice to the female figure at Somerset-house.

It would be unjust here to pass without notice, the merits of several ladies, who cannot possibly be actuated by any of the motives I have mentioned, yet who allow their portraits to be hung up merely to recommend the artists, and some of them even their names to be inserted in the catalogue; although this last circumstance is more rare. I allude to those ladies whom nature has not moulded in her kindliest mood, and whose features the skill of the painter cannot belie into any temptation. Their conduct is on many accounts highly meritorious. Fine features and a graceful person may seduce the judgment to overlook the defects of the artist; but in such faces as I have just alluded to, nothing of this kind can mislead the critic. They also discover much benevolence towards their own sex; for the homeliest virgin has no cause for despair, when she finds at the exhibition that Mrs. —o— and Mrs. —r— have got husbands. The young ladies of this description who have allowed their portraits to be hung up, I would earnestly recommend to the young men of this capital, as the best wives they can select; for they certainly must have a number of more valuable qualities to recommend them, when they are not ashamed to shew to the world that they have not a particle of beauty. I had once intended to give a list of these ladies to the public, as their merits cannot be too generally known; but it will be a matter of much less time and labour, for those who chuse, to note down the exceptions.

I know that some persons have been rendered such bigots to historical painting, by the old-fashioned models of the Italian school, that nothing will satisfy them but a story on canvass. As I would have every one gratified as far as possible, I think something might be done to please such persons, and yet not interfere much with the improved style of painting in the present age. There cannot perhaps be found many subjects remarkably interesting in the adventures of those whose faces are hung up to public admiration at Somerset-house: but there are abundance of incidents of great interest in history, that were transacted by persons of whose faces and figures we have no certain information. Would it not therefore be quite as well for the painter to fill up his groupes with his employers, as to draw on his imagination for them? I know this is no new idea: we have already ladies as Miranda, as Hebe, as Daphne, &c. nay we have whole family groupes *treated historically*. It is impossible to describe the beautiful effect which a general adoption of this mode would produce. It would render the Exhibition a species of masquerade; and the ladies and

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gentlemen who appeared *in character*, might equally enjoy the surprise of their friends at the usual question, "Do you know me?" There are many historical incidents that would admirably correspond with certain figures of the present age, and not a little with their adventures. Where could the painter suit himself better with figures for a Rape of Proserpine, than in the little black-eyed nymph who some time ago made off to Gretna-green with a tall swarthy barrister? And surely the artist will not be greatly puzzled to discover a fair and frail creature, that will not be much out of character in representing the beautiful Athenian courtezan, whose advocate found no difficulty in persuading her judges of her innocence, by simply drawing aside the veil which concealed her face and her bosom.

There are still a considerable number of persons in this kingdom, whose ancestors acquired their dignities by actions that would give animation to the pencil. Now if such persons still carry about them the honours of their ancestors, without any burlesque, I cannot see how it should be a whit more ridiculous, if they in their turn lent their figures to the actions of their ancestors. Thus a painter employed to draw Lord ——, might case his Lordship in a suit of armour of the fifteenth century, and introduce him doing wonders with his back to a tree, while he kept some twenty full-armed cavaliers at bay. Our catalogue might in this manner become a chronicle of our titled families, and surely nothing could run more gratefully to noble ears than, "the Earl of —— in the character of his ancestor, William of Waterlee, when he was knighted for his valiant feats in the field of battle." The painter will, indeed, require to exercise his discretion, and not to place his employers in situations which may excite the sneers of the ill-disposed. For although custom has reconciled us to hear, without a smile, the merest inanities of Bond-street distinguished by titles that were originally conferred on worth and valour; yet to see Lord —— pourtrayed in a battle, or a tournament, or indeed in any sort of combat whatever, except with his taylor or valet, would be a temptation to laughter not to be resisted. The artist will do well also to be cautious what historical characters he selects for some of our ladies of fashion. Lady —r—y, for example, would look not quite at home in the character of the cold virgin Diana; unless indeed, by the introduction of her lord as Acteon, some resemblance to realities might be discovered in the picture. To depict Mrs. N—— as Penelope, would be still more like burlesque; as all the world knows that she understands better how to employ her nocturnal hours, than in weaving webs, during the absence of her Ulysses.

The best way for the painter to proceed, in order to avoid any improprieties of this kind, I should imagine would be to draw his principal figure first, and then consider with himself what historical or imaginary groupe it might best be associated with. If, for example, he has got an old man's head, and is at a loss how to dispose of it, he has only to clap a young man and a salmon to it, and immediately it becomes an historical subject. In this plan the artist will proceed with the more spirit, as he will be conscious that he is following great authority.

With regard to the particular merits of the exhibition of this year, I leave them to the newspapers and other eminent critics. I cannot, however, conclude, without remarking that the easy and undoubtedly graceful negligence which distinguishes the manners of this age, has made its way into the closets of our artists; for in most of the historical pieces and landscapes scattered over the rooms, I could observe that some principal figure, or some favourite part of the view is finished with care, while the rest of the picture is left in such a neglected state, as if to set the former off by the contrast. There is something of a generous and energetic impatience in this style of painting; it shews the artist to be none of those dull, pains-taking mortals, who can pore over minutiæ. Whatever some ill-natured people may say of these negligences, I can aver for my part, that they often afford me infinitely more entertainment than all the finished beauties of the picture. I do not recollect having been more amused than in the Antique Academy room, with my own conjectures, and the opinions of those around me, concerning a large white oval ruff in which the head and face of an elderly figure was enveloped. After various surmises on a part of dress I had never before heard of, I was relieved from my perplexity by an ingenious bystander, who observed, from the situation of this white appearance, that it could only be designed for a hoary head, whiskers and beard. To this conclusion, as we could make nothing else of it, we were all obliged to assent, although I believe no such colour or form of hair is to be found in Mr. Ross's emporium. It would be unjust not to express my high expectations from the genius of another artist, who has been transported so far into the sublime regions of fancy, as to forget to inform himself that highland tartan or plaid consists of a succession of regular rectilinear figures of various colours, and not of a medley of red, blue, green and black spots, daubed at random.

I cannot conclude this paper, without complimenting our artists on that wonderful elasticity of imagination, which enables them so often to make great things small, and small things great. Every one who enters the exhibition must perceive abundance of subjects extended on many feet of canvas, which he would not have been at all disappointed to find in the compass of two inches square. On the other hand, any person who has read Ossian, and who sees in the catalogue, "Fingal engaging the Spirit of Loda," is naturally led to expect something grand and awful in a contest between the Ruler of the Winds and the unconquered hero of Morven. What then must be his admiration of the compressing powers of the painter's fancy, when, after a long search, he at length discovers this piece consigned, with its brother miniatures, to the snug corner of a window; and these two sublime personages, the one of them an immortal, presented in the figure and attitude of a couple of cudgel-players!

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POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Paper Currency.

Observations on Lord King's Thoughts on the Effects of the Bank Restrictions; and on a Letter to the Right Honourable Lord King in Defence of the Conduct of the Banks of England and Ireland, by Henry Boase.

NOTHING, in its origin, is more simple than commerce. The bartering of one commodity for another is what even a savage perfectly comprehends. All commerce, even when at its greatest height, is only the bartering of one commodity for another. But when these transactions come to be very numerous; when many curious abridgements of the labour have been introduced, when it is very much subdivided, and distributed among various classes, agents, or conductors, it often appears a very complicated and difficult subject. It is not easy to trace many of the operations till you exhibit them in their simple nature, merely barters of one commodity for another. Each step of the progress is very accurately known to that class of traders who conduct it. Each class knows the mechanical process which is necessary for that purpose, but regards not the steps which precede or follow. The workman who makes the cylinder of a steam engine is very well acquainted with the making of cylinders; the workman who makes the boiler is very well acquainted with the making of boilers, and so on; but none of them understands the ingenious mechanism of the whole. In like manner, the merchant exporter knows the business of exportation; the broker of bills knows the traffic of bills; the insurer knows the business of insurance; the discounter of discounts; the banker of banking, and each department the trader engaged in it. But that combination of operations which is carried on by them all, the connection and dependence of these operations, and the general economy and nature of the whole, they neither study nor understand. Each understands his own operation, and he considers no more.

Mankind were very long indeed in beginning to look upon commerce as a subject of general reflection; and when they did begin, they were surprized to find that so many curious combinations, so very difficult to analyze, had taken place. Something very similar was observed here to what had formerly been observed in the case of language. The giving of names to objects, and communicating their thoughts about them, is an operation to which the simplest of mankind are competent. But when language is examined, combinations are found, which are used every day with accuracy by all men, but which very few men have reflected upon, or are capable of analyzing.

Of all the particulars relating to commerce, the most difficult to be understood is money. It is a contrivance to facilitate the making of barters. But so many ways have been discovered of abridging money transactions; so many operations have been contrived to be thrown into one, that it is a very intricate subject. Another thing has contributed greatly to render this subject obscure. The mechanical conductors of any set of operations have a strong propensity to abridge greatly the expressions employed about them. By far the greater number of expressions, accordingly, employed by the merchants about the details of their business, are very abridged forms of expression; they are very general, and very abstract; and form a language which is not intelligible to any body but merchants. This is one great source of difficulty in obtaining clear ideas of the nature and operations of commerce. The framers too of these expressions, being but little acquainted with philosophical accuracy, have not given to them great nicety or exactness. They are coarse expedients to answer a coarse occasion. They are by consequence extremely vague expressions. And what is worse, they are almost always very ambiguous. They answer the purposes of the merchants in negotiating their bills and making their purchases. But nobody is more misled by them than the merchants themselves, out of the beaten path of their mechanical transactions; and a merchant almost always reasons worse on every general question relating to commerce, than any other man.

Money, or the instrument of barter, or as it has been called, not very properly, the circulating medium, has lately engaged the consideration of several ingenious men; and the little progress which they have made, the number of disputes which are maintained, and the various topics never yet discussed, are a sufficient proof of the difficulty of the subject. Whenever men write with obscurity, it may in general be taken for granted that they have written without understanding the subject. But almost all men have written with obscurity on the subject of money. They appear to have had certain crude ideas, which they themselves had never analyzed, and which they were unable to trace either to their causes or effects. By consequence, crude ideas only can be derived from their writings. It is not to be denied, that various important particulars have been explained very fully by Dr. Smith and others; but other various important particulars are yet not at all understood; and no man has exhibited any thing like a complete and perfect view of the subject; or appears fully to have understood it.

When the order of council for the suspension of payments in cash at the Bank of England was issued, it is plain that neither the council nor the public understood at all the nature of what was done. The suspension ordered was of very short duration indeed, only a certain number of days. It was continued by short prolongations: these were gradually extended; and now it is appointed of an indefinite length. Never would the council have dreamed of making it of an indefinite length, when they first proposed it; nor would the public have suffered it. Even now, men who have bestowed the greatest attention upon the subject are not agreed about the nature of the suspension, some thinking it a wise measure from which none but good effects have followed; others thinking it a measure which has been productive of the greatest evils, and which never ought to have been adopted.

Of this last number is Lord King, who appears to have studied the subject much more profoundly than most people, and who has written on it a very ingenious and philosophical tract. We are happy at having this opportunity of expressing our high appro-

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bation of the performance of this young nobleman, which evinces high attainments in knowledge, in powers of thought, and in elegance of expression. The author must have spent the years of his youth in very different employments from those of the great body of young noblemen.

The object of this pamphlet is to prove that the suspension of payments in cash at the banks of England and Ireland has been productive of an issue of paper-money, greater than the barter transactions of Great Britain required; and therefore that the currency of Great Britain has sustained a depreciation. The notes of the bank of England in circulation amount at present to about £16,000,000; whereas, their average amount previous to the suspension was about ten millions and a half. It must be allowed, however, that this increase in the quantity is not of itself, and unsupported by any other evidence, a proof that the number of notes is too great. It is possible that the whole number is wanted. The quantity of specie which has been removed from circulation notes were necessary to replace. A great multiplication of mercantile transactions has been produced, and an additional supply of the instrument of barter was required. Now whether 16 millions of bank notes be the quantity necessary to answer these occasions, or more than the quantity, does not appear by merely stating its excess above the quantity issued previous to the suspension. Though undoubtedly the remark of Lord King is perfectly just, that an increase of mercantile transactions does not require a proportional increase of the instrument of barter, or standard of valuation. For example, if all the mercantile transactions of this country should be doubled during the next ten years, the money in circulation would not at the same time be doubled. According as transactions multiply it is found that the quantity of the circulating medium necessary to carry them on by no means increases in proportion to the amount of the transactions. The same sum becomes the instrument of a much greater number of barters in a given time. It is found that many expedients may be used to abridge business when it is carried on upon a great scale, which were impracticable when it was carried on upon one that was small. Still, however, the diminution of the quantity of specie in the circulation of Great Britain, and the multiplication of her mercantile transactions, both of which are acknowledged to have been great, may have required all the increase which has been made in the paper of the bank; unless some particular reason can be assigned to shew that it has not.

It is impossible to assign the quantity of specie which has disappeared from circulation in this country, and of which the place was to be supplied by an equal amount of paper money. It is impossible likewise to assign accurately the increase which has been effected in the mercantile transactions of this country, during the period to which we allude; or to determine the increase of the instrument of barter which would be necessary to carry them on. If these points were ascertained, it would appear immediately whether the quantity of paper issued by the bank has or has not been greater than the quantity required. They are, however, incapable of being ascertained; and accordingly Lord King has not attempted the task.

If any proof exist in his book, that the Bank of England has exceeded the proper measure in the issue of its paper, it arises from the proof which he has endeavoured to establish of a depreciation having taken place in the currency of this country. This is indeed only an indirect proof. But if it is manifest that our currency is really depreciated; and if no other cause for that depreciation appears, it must be owned it becomes highly probable that the quantity of currency has been too much encreased.

The reasons which Lord King has stated for his belief that the currency of Great Britain has been depreciated are two. First, he says, that the price of bullion has risen: and next, that the course of exchange has been unfavourable to this country.

1st. With regard to bullion; a rapid advance in late years has taken place in the price of that article. This Lord King thinks is owing to the enlarged paper currency of the Bank not convertable into specie. The price of bullion is one of those ambiguous expressions which are so apt to mislead. It means either the price of gold or the price of silver. The word "price" too, in the phrases "price of gold," "price of silver," has not exactly the same meaning, as when we talk of the price of any other commodity. The price of any other commodity means the quantity either of gold or silver which can be obtained for it, according to the proportion between the value of these two metals which is established by law in the currency of the country where the commodity is to be sold. A certain quantity of gold, a proportionate quantity of silver, which is always a fixed quantity for a fixed quantity of gold, is the standard by which the value of every thing else is denominated. The price of every commodity is expressed by a reference to this fixed proportion. But when we talk of the price of gold, of the price of silver, we mean something very different. Gold and silver, taken conjointly are the standard by which the value of other things is denominated. But taken conjointly they cannot be the standard by which the value of these metals themselves taken separately is denominated. What then is the standard to which we refer when we talk of the value of gold or of silver? Nothing but the other metal. When we talk of the price of silver we refer to a certain quantity of gold, and when we talk of the price of gold we refer to a certain quantity of silver. When we talk of the price of other things, the relative value of these two metals is always considered as fixed, but when we talk of the price of themselves we consider it as variable, and whenever of a change of that price, we consider the relative value as actually varied. A change of the price of gold, or of the price of silver, means nothing else than a change in the relative value of these two metals; that a certain quantity of the one, is worth either less or more than that quantity of the other, which it was worth previous to the change. When a change, exactly proportional, takes place in the value both of gold and silver at the same time; when that value for example has encreased, we do not say that

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gold and silver have become dearer, but that commodities have become cheaper; gold and silver being the standard of the denomination of value. But whenever a change takes place in the value of the one metal, without a proportional change taking place in the value of the other, then we say that the one metal has risen or fallen in price, the other being considered as the standard to it of the denomination of value.

When, for example, a table is presented to us of the variations, during a number of months or years, of the price of an ounce of silver, it exhibits to us nothing more than the variations between the value of an ounce of silver and an ounce of gold. If that table exhibits to us a continual rise in the price of silver, a table might be made on the other side, of exactly the same import, exhibiting a continual decrease in the price of gold. Lord King, therefore, falls into a great mistake when he produces a table exhibiting a rise in the price of silver, and supposes that any argument can thence be drawn, to prove a depreciated currency. His antagonist might with equal reason produce a table exhibiting a fall in the price of gold, and thence argue that currency has been enhanced in value. In another part of his tract, Lord King speaks of this subject with perfect accuracy. "There is reason to believe," says he, p. 137, "that during the last century the value of silver in Europe, as compared to gold, has encreased, though in a small proportion." If the value of a certain quantity of silver, when the proportionate value between it and gold was fixed at our mint about ninety years ago, be represented by $14\frac{1}{2}$, it may now, according to the average value of silver during some years past, be represented by $15\frac{2}{10}$. But from this rise in the price of bullion, as it would be denominated by Lord King, his lordship does not attempt to establish a gradual depreciation of currency during the century. It is however, no less improper to attempt to deduce a depreciation of it from the increase in the price of silver which has been experienced during some late years.

It may easily be shewn to a man of so much acuteness in these matters as Lord King, that the depreciation which he thinks has taken place, could not, had it existed in any degree, however great, have had any effect upon the variations in the price of silver stated in the table he has made out. The depreciation of the currency, had it existed, it is plain must have had an effect exactly proportional both upon gold and silver. If it raised the value of the one in any degree, it must have raised the value of the other in a degree exactly similar. Their relative value therefore, would have remained precisely the same; and as they are the standard of the denomination of value to each other, their nominal prices would have also remained the same. No change therefore in the price of silver can be in any degree produced by the depreciation of currency. A rise or a fall in the price of silver is produced by something which makes it of more or less value compared with gold. But a depreciation of currency affects the value of gold and silver equally.

It is a striking proof of the confusion of ideas which prevails on this subject that so acute a reasoner as Lord King should have given us an account of a rise in the price of silver, without ever mentioning gold, and then should through his whole book have talked of a rise in the price of bullion; as if gold were not bullion. But gold has not risen in price. On the contrary, if silver be considered as the standard of the denomination of value, which it is in every part of Europe but Great Britain, gold has fallen in price.

It is very well shewn too, in the Letter to Lord King mentioned above, that the periods of rise and fall in the price of silver by no means correspond to the periods of the greatest emission of paper by the Bank. From this also it is evident that the one event is independent of the other. In that letter is further given a very satisfactory account of the fluctuations in the price of silver, from causes altogether unconnected with any change in the currency of Great Britain. We are far, however, from placing that Letter on the same level in respect of merit, with the tract of Lord King. Some observations, drawn from facts lying on the surface of the subject, are well made in it; but many others are sufficiently absurd. Lord King goes deep; and even his errors are those of a man skilled in the subject.

From these reasonings and facts we are clearly of opinion that Lord King's first argument to prove the depreciation of British currency, his argument drawn from the price of bullion, is altogether futile.

2. He concludes from the state of the exchange between Great Britain and the Continent of Europe during some years past, that the currency of this country has been depreciated. On the subject of exchange he communicates some valuable information. This is another part of the general doctrine of commerce which is very much obscured by the technical language of the merchants. And if the traffic in gold and silver between one country and another, as it is regulated on the same principles with the traffic in any other commodity, had always been spoken of in precisely the same language, we should not have been in so much doubt and ignorance about it. Nothing can be more apt than the words of Mr. Locke, quoted by Lord King as a motto to his book: "This business of money and coinage is by some men, and amongst them some very ingenious persons, thought a great mystery, and very hard to be understood. Not that truly in itself it is so, but because interested people who treat of it wrap up the secret they make advantage of in a mystical, obscure, and unintelligible way of talking: which men, from a preconceived opinion of the difficulty of the subject, taking for sense, in a matter not easy to be penetrated but by the men of art, let pass for current without examination. Whereas, would they look into those discourses and inquire what meaning the words have, they would find for the most part either their positions to be false, their deductions to be wrong, or (which often happens) their words to have no distinct meaning at all. Where none of these be, there their plain, true, honest sense would prove very easy and intelligible if expressed in ordinary and direct language." To the same purpose, Sir James Stuart, in the third Book of his Political Economy, ch. 6, says:—"Quest. 1. The first question I shall propose for illustrating this subject shall

be, Whence it comes to pass that the doctrine of money is so extremely difficult and involved?"

"Answ. This I ascribe chiefly to the introduction of a money-jargon, employed by the people who have had the management of mints, or who have been practical merchants, without knowing any thing of the theory of their business."

Every country which imports any commodity must pay the expence of importation; which is added to the price of the commodity. When a country imports gold and silver, it must pay the expence of importation. This is added to the price of the commodity; and this additional price on gold and silver is the rate of exchange against the importing country.

A quantity of pure gold and silver in one country is always reckoned of the same value with an equal quantity in any other country. The expression of this equal quantity in the coins of two countries is called, absurdly enough, the par of exchange between them. Thus if 35 schillings Hamburgh money contain the same quantity of pure silver as a pound sterling; then 35 is said to be the par of exchange between Great Britain and Hamburgh. Accordingly when a man in Hamburgh comes to the place of exchange, and says to his neighbour, I want to have a pound sterling lodged in London; you have a pound sterling there already, give it to me, and I will give 35 schillings to you here, which his neighbour accepts; then exchange is said to be at par between the two countries; that is to say, a certain quantity of silver paid in Hamburgh purchases there an equal quantity deposited in London. This only happens when there are as many people in Hamburgh who have money lodged in London which they want removed to Hamburgh, as there are who have money in Hamburgh which they want removed to London. By transferring to each other the money which they have respectively in these two places, they save each other the whole expence of transporting their money from the one place to the other. But when a man comes upon the exchange at Hamburgh, and finds nobody who has any desire to bring money from London, or willing to incur the expence of transportation, he must not only give an equal quantity to the man who has money at London, but must add the whole expence of transportation. This is the difference of exchange which is produced by the ordinary transactions of commerce.

A difference of exchange is produced by another operation. Suppose the pound sterling were commanded in this country to contain only one half of the silver which it contains at present, and that any man at Hamburgh had occasion to purchase from another a pound sterling after this change. He would only give an equal quantity of silver for it, with that which it contained. Instead of giving therefore, as formerly, 35 shillings, he would give only 17½. According to this purchase too, the exchange would in reality be at par between the two countries. But in the coarse language of the merchants it would be said to be 17½ below par; and if to this should be added, by the state of commercial transactions, the expence of transportation, it might be reduced to 2.3 or 24.

Lord King argues, that from the nature of our commercial operations, we must always have a balance of cash coming in to us from the continent of Europe; because we have a continual drain going out to the East Indies, which cannot be supplied from any other source. There is always therefore a greater number of persons on the continent who wish to send money to London, than there is at London who wish to send money to the continent. The expence of transporting the surplus must always be borne accordingly by the traders on the continent; and thus the course of exchange must always be against them. Any extraordinary payment, as a loan or grant to a foreign prince, might alter the case, for a little time. But this is its habitual state; and while commercial transactions remain as they are, it cannot long be removed from it. Thus far we entirely agree with Lord King.

He adds, that the exchange with Europe has been against this country for a length of time, which cannot be accounted for by our extraordinary payments to the continent; and has continued against this country after all these extraordinary payments must have been effected, and when the continent must have been sending money to this country, and paying the expence of its transportation. This he ascribes, accordingly, to the second cause, of an unfavourable exchange, depreciation of our currency, as when a pound sterling is made to contain less silver, and thus may be bought at Hamburgh by a smaller number of schillings. Let us consider how this species of unfavourable exchange is produced. An equal quantity of gold and silver in London, after this depreciation is still bought with an equal quantity at Hamburgh, bating the expence of transportation. Thus when 100 assignats could have been bought at Hamburgh for 1½ schillings, the price of one livre, though the assignats nominally represented 100 livres; it was only because the hundred assignats would not purchase more than one livre in France. It is the quantity of silver in the one country, balanced against an equal quantity in the other, which denotes the exchange. Now granting that our bills of exchange are payable in notes of the bank, a bill of exchange for 100 pounds of bank notes will not be sold for a farthing less than 100 pounds in gold and silver. When a foreigner, therefore, purchases this bill payable in bank notes, he purchases a hundred pounds in gold and silver; or at any rate as much of any other commodity as a hundred pounds in gold and silver would command in this country. A hundred pounds in bank notes, to be paid away in this country, which every bill of exchange bought by a foreigner upon this country is intended to be, is just of as much value as 100 pounds in gold and silver brought fresh from the mint. A quantity of schillings therefore, equal in quantity to the pure gold and silver contained in one hundred pounds, must be given for the bill; since it is of equal power in all payments with that quantity of gold and silver. So long, therefore, as bank notes bear no discount, the quantity of paper money can have no effect whatever upon the course of exchange.

Lord King has in all probability greatly underrated the effects upon the state of exchange produced by the extraordinary payments this country has in late years made to the continent for grain, for the maintenance

of troops, and in subsidies and loans to foreign princes. Some very good observations are made on this part of the subject, in the letter which we mentioned above. It is there shewn that the fluctuations in the state of exchange followed not by any means the changes in our paper currency; but followed most exactly the necessity we were under of making or not making extraordinary payments on the continent.

From what has been said, we think it will sufficiently appear that neither the variations in the price of silver, nor those in the state of exchange with Europe, have been owing to the state of our paper currency, but to quite different causes.

The state of exchange between Ireland and this country is another, and a very interesting subject, which we must reserve to a future opportunity.

Political History from May 16 to June 1.

FOREIGN.

DUKE D'ENGHEIN.—The murder of this young prince has excited over the Continent all that indignation which such an atrocious action was naturally calculated to produce. It seems indeed to have come more home to the feelings of the sovereign powers than any of the former tyrannical acts of Bonaparte. The conduct of the Emperor of Russia on this occasion forms a considerable contrast with the tame, silent, and uniform torpor into which the Continental Powers have since the treaty of Luneville been plunged. A general court-mourning has taken place at St. Petersburgh, and a spirited declaration has been transmitted to the German Diet, by the Russian Resident at Ratisbon. In this declaration the Russian Emperor states his grief at the transaction alluded to, his surprise and indignation at the infraction of the rights of the German Empire, of which, in common with himself, France had become the guarantee. He calls upon the Diet to consider the fatal consequences of allowing such acts of violence to pass unnoticed; and, as guarantee of the Constitution of the Germanic Empire, protests against the present infraction of its rights. He also informs them that he has caused his minister at Paris to inform the First Consul of his sentiments on this occasion; and earnestly exhorts them to join their remonstrances to his in order to procure suitable reparation for their violated dignities, and proper security against the repetition of such acts for the future. Many reports are in circulation with regard to the effect produced on the First Consul by the remonstrance presented to him by the Russian minister at Paris. If it be true, as reported, that he behaved with his usual boyish irascibility and petulance, and returned a saucy answer; it is not likely that Alexander in his present temper will long delay to give the Consul more solid proofs of his indignation than a mere remonstrance. In the violation of the territories of Baden, the Emperor, from his near relation to that family, must consider himself as insulted. Indeed there is no other of the lesser German states which Bonaparte might not have trampled upon with more probability of impunity. Count Markoff, the late Russian ambassador at Paris, has also since his return received the particular and public thanks of the Emperor for his conduct during his stay at Paris; a conduct well-known to have been particularly disagreeable to his Consular Majesty. It is indeed needless to accumulate instances of the court of St. Petersburgh being ill-disposed towards France; the question is, whether Alexander will consider the tyranny of France to others a sufficient cause for him to go to war who is out of its reach. The courts of Sweden and Denmark have followed the example of Russia, and gone into mourning for the Duke d'Enghein.

EMPEROR OF THE FRENCH.—Bonaparte has at length attained the consummation of his wishes. The Senate and Tribunate have concurred in declaring, that his elevation to the dignity of Emperor is necessary to the salvation of France. The armies and the departments have re-echoed the same sentiment in the most prostitute language that flattery could devise. Overcome by this accumulation of intreaties, the Consul has at last been prevailed upon to sacrifice himself to the good of France, and to become an Emperor. Rejoicings have taken place in consequence of this news; and salutes have been fired by the Army of England stationed along the coasts. The coronation is expected to take place on the 14th of July, the anniversary of *French liberty*; and the Cardinal Legate, Caprara, or as some say, the Pope himself is destined to pour the oil of benediction on the head of the new Emperor. If we may judge from the disposition of the Northern Courts, it will be more easy for him to assume this title than to have it generally recognised.

EGYPT.—The hopes of the Porte that this country may yet be restored to its dominion have been revived by the quarrels that have taken place among the rebels. It appears that the Arnauts, who were the chief instruments in expelling the Turkish troops, have also quarrelled with the Beys, who were unable to pay them; and the latter after a bloody contest have been compelled to retire to Upper Egypt. The Arnauts it is said have now voluntarily sent to the Turkish commander at Alexandria to come and take the command at Cairo, where their head-quarters are. It is evident, however, that no reasonable prospects of tranquillity can be founded on the temporary submission of a banditti, who may next day murder the commander they have chosen. The Turkish government had previous to this affair so completely despaired of being able to recover Egypt, as to confer the government of it on Dgezzar Pacha, who had himself openly set the authority of the Porte at defiance.

DOMESTIC.

NEW MINISTRY.—The new ministry has at length been arranged. To the appointments mentioned in our last, we have to add, that the Duke of Portland is now President of the Council, the Lord Chancellor retains his situation, the Earl of Chatham continues in the Ordnance, and Mr. Canning is appointed Treasurer of the Navy. The Lord Lieutenant and Lord Chancellor of Ireland retain their places, and Mr. Foster succeeds Mr. Corry as Chancellor of the Irish Exchequer. While the arrangements for the new Ministry have been going forward, scarcely any thing but some routine business has been transacted in Parliament. In a short discussion, on a question of

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form relative to the Volunteer Bill, parties appeared in the position which might be expected; but the minister carried his point without a division. A variety of reports have been current respecting the difficulty of forming the new arrangements; and places are stated as having been offered to certain statesmen and rejected. The authority, however, on which such rumours rest ought to make the public cautious how they believe them; and although Lord Moira might have been offered the government of Ireland, it is scarcely possible that Mr. Tierney should have been *solicited in vain* to retain his place as Treasurer of the Navy.—The most remarkable feature in the state of parties is the relation in which the old and new ministry stand to each other. Mr. Addington has in the house of Commons expressed himself entirely ignorant of the measures to be pursued by Mr. Pitt; and has rather spoken in a tone that denotes no cordiality between them. Yet in a late interview of Mr. Pitt with his Majesty, which lasted two hours, Mr. Addington was present the whole time. His Majesty has also been to visit him, and partaken of a cold collation at his house; in short, every thing looks as if his Majesty's confidence were not withdrawn from the late minister. Rumour, as usual, has founded several reports upon this continuance of Royal regard; and it is even said that Mr. Addington has been solicited to take a part in the new ministry, and to become Speaker of the House of Lords, with a peerage and an annuity of £4000 per annum for three lives. If this offer has really been made and rejected, Mr. A. has greatly risen by his fall.—The new ministers have begun to shew their activity in a department, of the abuses of which Mr. Pitt very loudly complained before he came into office. It will be recollected that he pledged himself to prove that great abuses existed in the naval department, and that our dock-yards, &c. had, by ill-judged measures of reform, been deprived of those stores and workmen which were indispensably requisite for the supply and repair of our fleets, and consequently the safety of the nation. Active enquiries have therefore begun to be made into the state of our naval arsenals, and the means requisite to place them in the situation which the present ministers deem the most advantageous.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Mr. Luders has lately made a discovery in the Bodleian at Oxford, which promises much satisfaction to the curious in legal antiquities. It is a manuscript of the statutes in the reign of Edward II. in the English of that period; which was known to have existed in Selden's time, but has not been heard of since.

Royal Institution.—By the annual report of the Visitors on the accounts of the Royal Institution of April last we learn, that besides the return of some annual subscribers who had quitted the Institution, there has been since the commencement of the present season, the addition of 3 proprietors, 3 life subscribers, 175 annual subscribers, and 242 ladies and young persons subscribing to the lectures only; and the sum received for subscriptions and proprietor's shares from the 1st January to the 31st March, 1804, has amounted to £.1902 12*s*. The lectures, experiments, &c. are now regularly and fully attended; and there is every reason to suppose that a general interest in favour of this establishment has been created among the inhabitants of the metropolis.

The Laboratory, which had been formed some years since, on a limited scale, has this year been enlarged to the size of 48 feet by 34', by the addition of the old workshop; on the side of which, and under flues already existing, three additional furnaces have been constructed, and the remainder of the space has been fitted up with seats, as a theatre, for those who attend the experiments of research; an arched opening being made in the wall, in front of the table of the laboratory. The chemical apparatus has been improved, and this part of the establishment is now found to answer very completely the end of enabling the professor of chemistry and his assistants to prepare materials for the chemical lectures, and to carry on original inquiries upon new objects of science.

A collection of minerals has been formed during the last year, principally from presents liberally made by some of the proprietors and subscribers; and this collection, which already consists of more than 3000 specimens, will, it is presumed, when arranged and described, be found a very useful part of the Institution.

Great progress has been made in completing the library, the plan for which was formed previous to the last annual meeting, and is noticed in the report of the visitors at that period. The old lecture room, rendered useless by that which has been built on a larger scale, has been fitted up with shelves on three sides, and a gallery, constructed at half the height, so as to make every shelf accessible. The lists of books undertaken to be furnished have been mostly since delivered, and purchases have been made in the different branches, as opportunities have offered: in particular, the library of the late Thomas Astle, Esq. purchased for 1000 guineas, has proved an important acquisition to the collection, furnishing in itself almost every book in ancient British history, topography, and antiquities, besides a variety of scarce and valuable books in other classes. Of the total sum of £.4846 15*s*. raised by a separate subscription for this express purpose, and increased by interest of Exchequer bills to £.4922 0*s*. 7*d*. there has been expended in fitting up the room £.207 11*s*. in salaries and other expences £.47 5*s*. 6*d*. and in books £.2559 10*s*. 4*d*. the residue (excepting £.169 14*s*. 4*d*. in hand for present supply, and £.131 5*s*. subscriptions not yet paid) remaining invested in Exchequer bills, till opportunities of suitable purchases offer. On the whole, such is the forward state of the collection, and arrangements, that the managers expect to be enabled to open the room to the proprietors and subscribers in a few weeks from the present date.

The Model Room has been arranged to the best advantage, and there has been a small addition to the number of models this year. But the adequate supply of useful models still continues a desideratum in the establishment, and seems to call for every exertion, as forming so interesting a part of the original Prospectus of the Institution.

No material alteration has taken place this year in the House, and the only one ordered to be carried into effect, is the removal of the Printing-Office, the utility of which has not been found adequate to the expence attending it; at the same time that it has occupied a space in the upper story which may hereafter be employed to greater advantage.

At the last anniversary meeting of the Royal Society of Gottingen, Professor Blumenbach read a very instructive paper containing "*Specimen historiæ naturalis antiquæ artis monumentis illustratæ eaque vicissim illustrantis.*" Antique monuments of the arts can prove instructive for natural history—1. As far as scarce or important subjects are represented on them; 2. On account of the material of which they are composed; and 3. From accessory

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circumstances; for instance, the place where they are found, or the peculiar transformation, which the material has sustained through the length of time, &c. In the first point of view they prove instructive particularly for Anthropology and Zoology; in the second for Oryctognosy; and in the third for Geology. The author then illustrates the truth of these observations by a variety of instances.

AGRICULTURAL.—A work of 1 vol. 8vo has been just published at Paris on the principles of Agriculture and Economy, by a practical farmer. These principles are applied from month to month in regular succession, to the labour of the farmer in a well cultivated country. The work contains very interesting and important instructions on the management of a farm and the care of cattle.

ENTOMOLOGY.—M. C. A. Walckenaer has just published at Paris a work in 2 vols. 8vo. intitled *Faune Parisienne*, or an abridged History of the Insects in the environs of Paris, classed according to the system of Fabricius. To this book is prefixed a Dissertation on Insects in general, to serve as an Introduction to the study of Entomology, accompanied with seven plates.

EGYPTIAN ARCHITECTURE.—M. *Quatremere de Quincy*, has edited at Paris a valuable work under the title—"*De l'Architecture Egyptienne considéré dans son origine, ses principes & son gout* et *comparée sous les mêmes rapports à l'architecture Grecque.*" The result of the author's ingenious researches is, that the Egyptians neither followed a peculiar system of architecture, nor knew what is generally understood by the term *order*, and concludes his instructive work with the following observations of the celebrated *Hemsterhuys*:—"*Lorsqu'on dit que les Grecs ont été les disciples des Egyptiens, il faut entendre, je crois, que les Grecs ont appris des Egyptiens qu'il y avoit des arts et qu'ils ont appris d'eux le maniment grossier de quelques outils.*"—"*Plus d'une considération fait croire, que jamais les Grecs n'ont copié les ouvrages des Egyptiens et qu'on peut les regarder comme si les arts avoient pris veritablement naissance chez eux. Les Nations qui commencent par être copistes arrivent à leur perfection par une route bien differente de celle qu'ont tenu les Grecs.*"

SCIENTIFIC.

GEOLOGICAL FACTS.

Communicated by John Churchman, Fellow of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburgh.

In the empire of Russia it appears manifest that the sea has been retreating for ages past. Professor Pallas is certain that the sea has covered the centre of Asia for a long time, and in the days of Strabo, Alexander, and Ptolemy, the northern ocean communicated with the Caspian sea, at present twelve hundred miles from it.

According to the documents in possession of the Academy of Sciences at St. Petersburgh, a boat made of oak timber, together with several human skeletons was found some years ago in digging a small canal at Strelna, the seat of the Grand Duke Constantine. According to Dallin's history, the ocean retreated in his time in Sweden, and the celebrated Linnæus was of the same opinion. In the course of the last year was published a short account of a vessel laden with marble being lately found on high ground in the dominions of his Prussian Majesty near the Baltic.

At present the sea seems to gain gradually upon the land on the shores of the Baltic. In most of the charts of that sea, the ruins of the famous city of Vineta are represented under water. Antiquaries believe it took its name from the nation called the Vineti. These ruins lie between the Danish island of Bornholm, and of Rugen, opposite Swedish Pomerania. It seems the streets have been laid out like Babylon at right angles. According to Lubeccius, alderman of Triptow, this ruined city, once on level ground, was viewed by travellers with attention about the year 1564. Amongst other visitors was the then Duke of Brunswick and his chaplain, about this time a vessel had come from Gothland and carried away all the marble and metal then to be found, amongst other things were a pair of very large city gates made of metal, concerning which existed a popular song. President Keffenbrink tells, that on the 4th of August 1771, two Dutch vessels were shipwrecked on the ruins of this city, there were then standing several pillars of white marble or alabaster. The counsellor M. Jordan went thither with commodore Baarts from Swinnemunde, who endeavoured to save the vessels: as the weather was fine the company went on board, and inspected the pillars, one of which by the shock was brought from its vertical position. Some old men declared, that they had formerly seen these white pillars above water. A certain master of a vessel at Swinnemunde, said, that in 1760, an English ship was lost on the ruins of Vineta, and on that occasion he went thither to assist the vessel in distress. He said he had discerned two walls of brick which he supposed were about four feet thick, and sixty or seventy feet asunder. Some parts of it only reached so high as the water's surface.

Perhaps it is no more strange to observe the ocean to rise here by slow degrees, than for captain Cook to perceive the contrary effect to take place at Cape Denbigh, which is on a meridian nearly opposite.

The Danes give a similar account of Jomsburgh, which was occupied by Pirates, and where king Harold built a fort.

According to the observations made on the voyage of captain Vancouver, the ocean was evidently encroaching rapidly on the land at Cook's inlet, Port Chalmers, Prince William's Sound, and Gray's Harbour. Now seeing the meridian opposite St. Petersburgh, is at Cook's River, it seemed natural to suppose, that when the ocean begins to fall there, which is not to be expected so soon, it would begin to rise at St. Petersburgh, and it is remarkable, that during a fresh westerly breeze both in 1802 and 1803, the streets of that city were navigated with boats, whereas such an accident had not happened before since the year 1777; but having left that city before the last inundation took place I obtained information of it. The daily observations on the rising of the waters at St. Petersburgh had been discontinued before my arrival on account of the very slow change which appeared to take place.

Having written to the French Academy on this subject before the death of the King in 1792, M. Monge at that time Minister of the Marine was requested to make observations at Brest four times a day during one whole year. These will shew the state of the case in France.

The prize questions lately proposed by the Zealand Academy of Sciences at Flushing seem to prove the encroachment of the ocean in Holland. One whole year's observations would go nigh to establish the truth in England.

SOCIETY FOR THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF ARTS.—The annual distribution of the premiums of this Society took place on Tuesday the 29th of May. His Grace the Duke of Norfolk took the chair at 12 o'clock, but long before that hour, the great room was completely filled by a brilliant assemblage of rank, elegance, and fashion; among other persons of distinction, we observed the Duchess of Northumberland with her four daughters, the Swedish minister, and some Russian travellers; the candidates and the whole company were commodiously placed, owing to the arrangement and indefatigable exertions of the managers of the day.—Want of room obliges us to defer the list of successful candidates till our next Number.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

General View of the Agriculture of Shropshire: with Observations. Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement. By Joseph Plymley, *M. A. Archdeacon of Salop, in the Diocese of Hereford, and Honorary Member of the Board. London,* 1803. *8vo. pp.* 366. *7s. 6d.*

WHEN one considers the state of improvement in agricultural and manufacturing industry in this country, one cannot help being affected with a little surprise. In most of our manufactures the ingenious contrivances which have been employed to abridge and economise labour, to facilitate and perfect every process, are innumerable. The skill with which every thing is conducted, and the ease and order with which the greatest and most complicated operations are carried on, renders one of our great manufactories a most beautiful and instructive sight. The advantages of these numerous improvements have been remarkable, and have sunk the price of manufactured commodities in a very important manner. While taxes have increased in a most extraordinary degree; and while the value of money has sunk at a very wonderful rate, the produce of many of our manufactures can be obtained cheaper than a century ago; at the same time that all articles of provision, the produce of agriculture, have been doubled and tripled in price.

But while such great and important improvements have been made in almost every branch of manufacturing industry; nothing similar has happened in the case of agriculture. In this the progress of improvement has been slow indeed, and the steps which it has made in the greater part of the kingdom are far from numerous. The greater part of the instruments employed in agriculture, if not altogether, are at least nearly as rude as they were a hundred years ago, though machines without number have been invented and improved for the use of our manufactures. While labour is so wonderfully abridged and economised in the business of manufacture, the waste of the labour both of men and of beasts which is observable in the husbandry of the greater part of the kingdom provokes and grieves the observer. The improvements which have been made in facilitating, and perfecting the various processes in manufacture are without number. But the contrivances for improving the productive powers of the land have in comparison been few, and of very feeble effect. The produce of our manufactures during the last century has been increased an hundred fold; but the produce of the land has been increased in a very inconsiderable degree.

The incomparable advantages, however, of a flourishing agriculture, over every other species of national employment, in respect both of the security and independence, and of the strength and riches of a state, are too manifest to have any occasion to be pointed out; and are now universally acknowledged. Agriculture employs the most numerous, hardy, and valuable part of the great, the labouring, body of the society. Agriculture furnishes the most valuable of all the parts of national riches, the food of the people. Agriculture furnishes the only means of multiplying the numbers of the people. It even furnishes the materials of manufacture, the raw commodity, on which the manufacturing labour and ingenuity is employed. Agricultural riches are conducive to the strength, security, and tranquillity of a country in many respects more than manufacturing riches. And capital and labour laid out upon the land adds more to the riches of the country, affords, over and above replacing the capital and maintaining the labour, a greater surplus, by which the riches of the country are annually augmented, than capital and labour employed in any other manner.

What then is the reason that agricultural industry has remained so long in a state of rudeness, while manufacturing industry has arrived at such a degree of refinement and perfection? One reason is, that the nature of agricultural employments is not so favourable to the progress of improvement. It does not appear to admit of equal abridgements of labour, or applications of machinery, as the greater part of manufactures. The persons who carry on agriculture are dispersed; they have not the same opportunity of profiting by the observations of each other which manufacturers enjoy; and from the slight intercourse they have with others they are more stiff in adherence to the practices to which they have been accustomed, than persons habituated to adopt every day the occasional improvements in different departments of life, which intercourse with the world compels to receive. But another cause of the slow progress of agriculture, a cause of much greater consequence, is this; that there has not been nearly so great a disposition to embark capital in the business of agriculture as in trade; and while the capital engaged in trade has increased during the last century many hundred fold, we shall certainly go far beyond the mark, if we say, that the capital engaged in agriculture has been doubled. Over the greater part of England it has been increased, if increased at all, in a very trifling degree. Now what is the reason of this extraordinary circumstance? Of all the occupations of man, those more immediately connected with the higher exercises of the mind excepted, agriculture possesses the most varied and powerful attractions. Yet of the men of capital, the men completely at liberty to chuse their occupations in this country, scarcely any have thought of turning themselves to this delightful and important

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business. The truth is, that the state of property in land in this country has by no means been favourable to the drawing of capital to the cultivation of land. In the employment of capital in manufacture and trade there is perfect independence and freedom. The owner can turn and direct his operations just as he pleases. He has questions to ask of no master, nor to wait for his consent or approval. He is his own master. The whole subjects and materials of his operations are his own; and he can begin, end, arrange, and perform exactly as he pleases. This is an advantage the owner of capital naturally values above every other. This is an advantage the tenant is far from enjoying. The subject on which he works is not his own but another's. He always has a bargain to make with the owner for the use of that subject; and that bargain is always contrived to exhibit striking marks of the inferiority of the tenant. What is worse, it is always so contrived as to leave the tenant in many respects dependent upon the will or caprice of the owner. The owner is not only the superior of the tenant; a thing which a man of property does not like; but he has power over the tenant; he can controul, and command him in many of his operations; if he be ill disposed, he can harass and distress the tenant in many respects; in short, in almost every case the relation between landlord and tenant is more or less that of master, and lord, on the one side, and of dependant on the other. This is the great cause which has chased the capital of the country from the cultivation of the land. This is a cause perfectly adequate, and which must for ever produce the same effects. Agriculture will for ever be understocked with capital, in every country where the cultivation of land is an employment less free and independent than other branches of industry. Freedom and independence is the noblest gift which property bestows. And the man who possesses property will, in by far the greater number of cases, chuse that employment of life which possesses this advantage in greatest perfection, however inferior it may be in other respects to some other employment.

The great accumulations of landed property in the hands of individuals in this country are very unfavourable to the progress of agriculture in many respects; but in none more than in this, that they make the greater proportion of the land be cultivated by tenants, persons whose situation exhibits inequality, dependence, and want of freedom; a situation which will never be filled by those whose property intitles them to freedom, independence, and superiority. All your great capitalists accordingly are to be found in your manufactures, and in your commerce. It is only when men cultivate their own land, that the business of agriculture possesses all its attractions. It is then only that the state of the cultivator is perfectly free and independent. It is only when this practice becomes general in the country that agriculture will possess its proper proportion of the capital of the country. The employment of a large capital, in this manner, upon land, appears to us equally natural, with any other employment of it. It appears to us to possess a much greater number of attractions than any other employment; and by consequence to draw to it a proportionably large share of the capital of the country. The superintendance of a large capital employed in the cultivation of a man's own land appears to us a more desirable employment for a rich man, than the superintendance of a large capital in a cotton manufacture, or in the buying and selling of goods, and shipping them to and from the West Indies. We are well convinced that had it not been for the large portions of land locked up in the hands of individuals, and the prejudices naturally flowing from such a distribution of property, this would have appeared to be the case, by the quantity of capital which would have been found employed in this manner.

Had this practice become nearly general in any country, a most salutary effect, which most people would hardly expect, would necessarily follow. The desire to accumulate an inordinate quantity of property in land would be entirely cut off by the natural and happy operation of things. If a man possessed a certain portion of land, and over and above this a certain portion of capital, he would find that this capital would produce him a much greater income employed in the cultivation of the land he already possessed, than laid out in a portion of additional land, when his whole estate must be cultivated by tenants. In this manner it would hardly ever become the interest of any man to possess more land, than that of which he could undertake the cultivation himself; as his additional capital would always be more advantageously employed in cultivating to the greatest possible perfection that portion of land the cultivation of which he could himself superintend, than in purchasing more land which must be cultivated by tenants.

If it be said that it is only a small portion of land, the cultivation of which an individual can superintend, and a small portion of capital which can be employed upon it; we cannot see that this is the case. Capitals, amounting to the size of the greatest fortunes are employed in many of our manufactures; and it appears not to us to be any unreasonable supposition that the business of agriculture may be so improved as to make it possible for an individual to superintend the employment of the greatest capital in agriculture. The operations of agriculture are indeed more multifarious than those of many manufactures. But it is difficult to say how much they may be simplified; and if it possess some disadvantages, it possesses many advantages. Capitals to the amount of fifty, sixty thousand pounds, and upwards, are employed in one species of agriculture, the keeping of milch cows in the neighbourhood of the metropolis. We have no doubt that capitals of an equal, and superior amount might be employed with the greatest advantage in the general business of agriculture even in its present imperfect state; and as improvements may be expected to take place, these capitals might be increased to any amount. We have no doubt that as agriculture improves it will be found that a very great capital may be employed with the utmost advantage on a very limited portion of land; and thus the superintendance of it will not appear to be so difficult.

There are some ideas of the intelligent author of the View of the Agriculture of the County of Middlesex, respecting the division of landed property

which we think worthy of being here quoted: "An increasing wealth," says he, "among the more numerous classes of the community, has a direct tendency to produce the division and sub-division of landed property; and accordingly we find, that, as the number of persons of this description is larger, so estates are less extensive in this county, than in any that are remote from the capital."

"The increase of money, by means of the general industry in trade and commerce, among the inhabitants of the metropolis, necessarily induces those persons who have large properties to dispose of, to divide them into as many lots as can conveniently be done, in order to increase the number of purchasers: as it is a well-known fact, that estates will sell for a larger sum, when thus divided, than could be obtained for them in one lot."

"From this circumstance, I apprehend, the number of the proprietors of land is still on the increase, and so also is the number of those gentlemen who occupy their own property, many of whom keep their grounds in such a superior state of cultivation and embellishment, as would undoubtedly render it a very pleasing task for any person of competent talents, to collect and describe their several excellencies and beauties."

Various are the circumstances in the policy of modern Europe which have tended to keep agriculture in the depressed state in which we behold it. Many of these circumstances it must be the work of time to alter. Till this be effected it is laudable to do all the good which the present circumstances will admit of. With this view an institution has been formed, which has obtained the sanction, and in some degree the support of government, intitled, The Board of Agriculture and Internal Improvement; one branch of the labours of which can hardly fail to be of the greatest importance. This is to collect and disseminate the greatest possible quantity of information on the important subjects, the cultivation of which they are required to promote. We think it of importance to assist in communicating as widely as possible the knowledge of the views of the Institution in this respect, that as many persons as possible may profit by their labours, and may contribute to bring them to perfection.

The Board has made the following distribution of the subjects, concerning which they think it their business to collect and disseminate information:—

"1. The riches to be obtained from the surface of the national territory.

"2. The mineral or subterraneous treasures of which the country is possessed.

"3. The wealth to be derived from its streams, rivers, canals, inland navigations, coasts, and fisheries;—and

"4. The means of promoting the improvement of the people, in regard to their health, industry, and morals, founded on a *statistical* survey, or a minute and careful inquiry into the actual state of every parochial district in the kingdom, and the circumstances of its inhabitants."

These are subjects of the very first importance; and we can hardly conceive a greater national benefit than to have laid before the people at large all the information which can be obtained respecting them. That subject, however, which is placed second in this division we consider as of an importance very far inferior to the other three. Indeed, we are not perfectly sure but the searching for, and digging of mines, had better be left alone by the Board of Agriculture. But to explore the means of increasing the riches to be obtained from the land and water of the country, the means of improving those two principal sources of national wealth, the agriculture and fisheries of the country, and the means of improving the health, morals, and industry of the people, is an undertaking which ought to meet with the greatest encouragement, and to be prosecuted with the utmost zeal and perseverance. We hope at least, that all these three will engage the attention of the Board before they trouble themselves with the mines, minerals, and fossils.

The Board have directed their first attention to the business of agriculture, the subject which stands first in order, in the table above; and they have very properly resolved to confine themselves to this subject, till they have brought their inquiries respecting it to a certain degree of perfection. These inquiries are conducted in the following manner:—Individuals, judged competent to the task, have been appointed to furnish accounts of the state of husbandry, and the means of improving it, in the different counties of the kingdom.

These accounts were printed and circulated by every means the board could devise, in the counties to which they related. And now a measure is carrying into execution, for communicating them to the whole country at large. These reports are re-printed, and published as an ordinary book, for the purchase and perusal of all persons who think themselves interested in the subject. It is one of these reports which is the object of our present consideration. The design is admirable, and cannot fail to be productive of the greatest advantages. A very well digested plan has been laid down, conformable to which all the reports are to be published. It is here subjoined:

PLAN OF THE RE-PRINTED REPORTS.

Preliminary Observations.

"CHAP. I. *Geographical State and Circumstances.*

SECT. 1. Situation and Extent.
2. Divisions.
3. Climate.
4. Soil and Surface.
5. Minerals.
6. Water.

CHAP. II. *State of Property.*

SECT. 1. Estates, and their Management.
2. Tenures.

CHAP. III. *Buildings.*

SECT. 1. Houses of Proprietors.
2. Farm Houses and Offices, and Repairs.
3. Cottages.

CHAP. IV. *Mode of Occupation.*

SECT. 1 Size of Farms, Character of the Farmer.
2. Rent—in Money—in Kind—in Personal Services.

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3. Tithes.
4. Poor Rates.
5. Leases.
6. Expence and Profits.

CHAP. V. *Implements.*

CHAP. VI. *Enclosing—Fences—Gates.*

CHAP. VII. *Arable Land.*

SECT. 1. Tillage.
2. Fallowing.
3. Rotation of Crops.
4. Crops commonly cultivated, such as Corn, Pulse, Artificial Grasses; their Seed, Culture, Produce, &c.*
5. Crops not commonly cultivated.

CHAP. VIII. *Grass.*

SECT. 1. Natural Meadows and Pastures.
2. Hay Harvest.
3. Feeding.

CHAP. IX. *Gardens and Orchards.*

CHAP. X. *Woods and Plantations.*

CHAP. XI. *Wastes.*

CHAP. XII. *Improvements.*

SECT. 1. Draining.
2. Paring and Burning.
3. Manuring
4. Weeding.

CHAP. XIII. *Live Stock.*

SECT. 1. Cattle.
2. Sheep.
3. Horses, and their Use in Husbandry, compared to Oxen.
4. Hogs.
5. Rabbits.
6. Poultry.
7. Pigeons.
8. Bees.

CHAP. XIV. *Rural Economy.*

SECT. 1. Labour—Servants—Labourers—Hours of Labour.
2. Provisions.
3. Fuel.

CHAP. XV. *Political Economy, as connected with, or affecting Agriculture.*

SECT. 1. Roads.
2. Canals.
3. Fairs.
4. Weekly Markets.
5. Commerce.
6. Manufactures.
7. Poor.
8. Population.

CHAP. XVI. *Obstacles to Improvement; including General Observations on Agricultural Legislation and Police.*

CHAP. XVII. *Miscellaneous Observations.*

SECT. 1. Agricultural Societies.
2. Weights and Measures.
3. Supply of London.
4. Experimental Farm.

CONCLUSION. *Means of Improvement, and the Measures calculated for that Purpose.*

APPENDIX."

* Where the quantity is considerable, the information respecting the crops commonly cultivated may be arranged under the following heads—for example, Wheat:

1. Preparation { tillage, manure, }
2. Sort.
3. Steeping.
4. Seed (quantity sown).
5. Time of sowing.
6. Culture whilst growing { hoe, weeding, feeding, }
7. Harvest.
8. Threshing.
9. Produce.
10. Manufacture of Bread.

In general, the same heads will suit the following grains:

Barley. Oats. Beans. Rye. Pease. Buck-wheat.

Vetches ..... Application.

Cole-seed ..... { Feeding, Seed. }

Turnips ..... { Drawn, Fed, Fed on grass, ——in houses. }

When all these surveys shall have been thus reprinted, it is proposed to draw up an abstract of the whole (which will not probably exceed two or three volumes quarto) to be laid before his Majesty, and both houses of parliament; and afterwards to form a General Report on the present state of the country, and the means of its improvement, systematically arranged, according to the various subjects connected with agriculture.

We have been thus minute in our account of the general plan of these reports, because we intend to bestow particular attention upon them as they successively appear; and what we have now stated, will serve as a general introduction to our criticisms on the whole.

The author of this report prefixes a short address, in which he makes an apology, because, being a clergyman, he has engaged in inquiries of this nature. To the really wise, we believe no apology is necessary; and to those who have any prejudices we hope that what he has advanced will be satisfactory. We can perceive no discordance between the duties of the clerical office, and a guarded and temperate engagement in the natural and noble occupations of agriculture. Were the country clergymen, who are persons of education and knowledge, to make themselves very generally acquainted with the business of agriculture, they might be of the utmost service, by suggesting improvements, and communicating information to their less enlightened neighbours.

Mr. Plymley deserves the thanks of his country for the information he has communicated in the report of the county of Salop. It is drawn up with uncommon ability. And we hope it will be very generally read. On many of the heads the information afforded is very full, and minute. In some, however, it is defective. We shall notice a few of the omissions which we regretted.

The observations upon the CLIMATE of the country are too general. We can form no very accurate notion either of the heat or moisture of the climate; in particular with regard to their variations in the different parts of the year. Above all we regretted that the observations were not more peculiarly connected with agriculture. We are not informed what is the period of the year at which the business of sowing is performed; or what is the period at which the business of harvest is performed; what are the accidents, arising from climate, which most frequently obstruct these operations; in what degree these obstructions

prevail; in what manner the growth of the crops is most generally influenced by the climate; what, in this respect are its particular virtues, and what are its particular vices; and what are the kinds of crops which are found most adapted to the climate. This is the species of information respecting climate, which suits an agricultural report: and we hope the Board of Agriculture will give directions to the persons appointed to draw up these reports, to attend more particularly to this important point.

Similar objections apply to the article SOIL. There is but little in it sufficiently definite. It is impossible, in the present state of our knowledge, to give any thing like an accurate description of soils; and an account of what parts of a country have loam, and what have clay, communicates very little information. Because soils of almost every different power in respect of produce may be found under the denomination of loam, and in the same manner under that of clay, sand, and every other. The only way in which soil can be described to communicate useful information to people at a distance, is by the crops it bears; by detailing the species of plant, for raising of which it seems to be best adapted, and the species of culture which prepares it to raise this plant in greatest quantity. This is the information which we should have wished to find in this report. This would have communicated to us some distinct ideas respecting the husbandry of the county. A list of loams and clays communicates to us hardly any.

The section, minerals, is very full and complete, and, Shropshire being a coal county, it is very interesting.

On the subject of farm-houses, the author makes a remark, which to every one acquainted with rural affairs, and who knows the greatness of the evil, and the extent in which it prevails, must appear of peculiar importance. The authors own words are;

"It is melancholy to see the dark rooms, in which farmers' servants are often put to sleep, since the increase of the window tax. It would be well, if landlords would see that a proper number of windows were kept open in farm-houses. An intelligent and active magistrate of this county once favoured me with the following suggestion, for an alteration in the window-tax, with reference to this subject. 'No house used as a farm-house only, to pay for more than 12 windows, 2l. 16s.; every farm-house with which lands of the value of £150 per ann. are occupied, shall be rated for not less than 10 windows, 1l. 14s.; the glass duty will be much increased, as well as the window-tax; farm-houses will be much more healthy, and grain, cheese, &c. better kept."

The author's observations on the subject of cottages are numerous, and almost all admirable. We wish we had room to transcribe the whole. The following observation has something in it so profoundly just, and so truly benevolent, that we will not deny ourselves the pleasure of transcribing it:

"I think it perfectly possible to improve men in their turn of mind, by giving them proprieties in and about their habitations, they may not have thought of, or desired. If, upon occupancy, they find a real want of alterations or additions, it will then be time enough to make them. We must not expect to give satisfaction at first, in our attempts to serve the poor; if this object is not undertaken on a principle of duty, it will soon be given up in disgust; for though good sense or good principle are not confined to any station, and though there are men in the lowest situations, with whom the best informed may converse, both with pleasure and improvement; yet in this, as in all human intercourse, there will be found much to endure; and indulgence will as often lead to imposition as to gratitude; and perhaps uneducated persons are the most likely to mistake a disinterested desire of serving them, and to regard it as a proof of weakness rather than benevolence."

In the account of the contents of the farmer's gardens, we were astonished to find no mention of greens or cabbages of any sort. We have often observed, in almost every part of the kingdom, a most wonderful ignorance among the farmers, of the comfort and real advantage which may be derived from a well managed kitchen-garden. We think that the board of agriculture ought to be at considerable pains to diffuse among them a knowledge of this by no means trifling article of rural economy.

The following mode of converting a very noxious weed to use, deserves to be made as generally known as possible:

"I doubt whether the custom of burning couch-grass (*Triticum repens,*) called in this county scutch-grass, with fire, is so good a method of destroying it as by lime. When a field is cleaning from this noxious grass, the roots may be carried to a heap, without staying to shake the soil from them so completely as is necessary for burning; and if, in making the heap, clods of hot lime, of the depth of a few inches, are placed between every layer of about one foot thick, the heat of the lime will reduce them to ashes. If the smoke is so great as to make flame apprehended, soil should be cast upon the heap, to prevent this. The quantity of ashes produced by this method, is much greater than in the ordinary mode, the plant is as completely destroyed, and the lime, so slacked and incorporated, appears to do much more good to the land, especially to ground that has been used to that manure. It is a good method to cut the weeds from the hedges, &c. and burn them in the same way. Turf is sometimes cut upon Clun forest, in May or June, and burned. The ashes are used as a manure for turnips, ten cart-loads to an acre."

The astonishing prosperity of our manufactures has arisen in a great measure from the wonderful economy of labour which has been introduced. The intelligent observer is filled with melancholy to observe the gross, and barbarous waste of it which prevails in agriculture. How common is it, in the very neighbourhood of the metropolis, to observe five horses in a single line, one before the other, drawing a plough? Two horses pulling a-breast would have equal efficacy; and the same work which is performed by five horses and two men, might be, and is performed in some parts of the country, by two horses and one man. Mr. Plymley takes notice that the labour of the cattle is very injudiciously employed by the Shropshire farmers; but we are sorry that this is one of the most defective parts of his work. In the economy of labour, we think the English husbandry might receive immediate, and great improvement. The superiority of the Scottish husbandry in this respect is remarkable.

The article RURAL ECONOMY, too, is very defective. An account of the prices of labour and provisions is surely not all the information wanted on this head. We should wish to know all the different kinds of labour in which the people are employed. We should wish to know the proportions of them which are employed in each species. We should wish to know whether they labour with ardour or remissness. We should

wish to know likewise, not merely the price of provisions; but what kind of provisions the people use; what they have for breakfast, dinner, and supper; how they dress it; what sort of furniture they have in their houses, and whether they keep them dirty or clean. Mr. Plymley tells us nothing of all this.

Of all circumstances perhaps, on which it is important, in the present situation of the country, that the most complete information should be collected and published, THE POOR, is the greatest and the most urgent. One of the things for which the reports of the counties by the board of agriculture are interesting, is the article POOR. But we are forced to declare that the greater part of those hitherto published have been very defective in this respect; and none more so than this of the county of Salop. On this important subject the author does not seem to have reflected with his usual discernment. He passes over the subject with hardly any notice. And even in what he says, he discovers that he has formed very erroneous, and contracted notions on it. We have not left ourselves space to explain all our ideas on this subject, in the present review. But we shall take an early opportunity of doing so.

The following observations, on the return made respecting the population of the country, deserve the particular attention of all who have occasion to draw any conclusions from that document:

"Since writing the above, the return has been made under the Act of the 41st Geo. III.—That return states this county to contain 31,132 inhabited and 929 void houses, 34,501 families, 82,563 males, 85,076 females, 45,046 persons employed in agriculture, 35,535 mechanics, and 70,504 persons not employed in either of those two classes. The total number of persons 167,639. It is possible that a very few districts may be omitted in this return, and that some may have been counted twice over, from the circumstance of townships and parishes not always being co-extensive. The inaccuracy of the return, with respect to the number of persons employed in agriculture, is very obvious. The Act does not say whether it was the intention of the legislature to confine this list to males, and there are three ways in which it has been made. In some returns, the males only employed in agriculture are given; in others, the list contains also women keeping farms, and dairy-maids: and again in others, all the men, women and children of a farmer's family, or of a labourer's in farming business, are added to that class. The same is the case in the return of the mechanics, and this return is further doubtful, as miners are in some instances added to it, and in others stated as belonging to those not comprized in either of the specified employments; whilst the persons making the return in some parishes, have seemed to consider it necessary to class all the inhabitants under the head of agriculture or of trade; as I observe them so stated where I know there are resident clergymen, at least, of respectability, and who have families." M.

Practical Essay on the Analysis of Minerals. By Frederick Accum, *Teacher of Chemistry, Pharmacy, and Mineralogy. London.* 12mo. 7*s*.

The analysis of mineral substances, late indeed in its origin but mature in its progress, exhibits, beyond almost all other instances, a striking example of the rapid advancement of chemical knowledge. Forty years ago chemists had not even begun to think of the analysis of minerals. It is entirely the creation of the present age. The first rude attempts of the kind were made by Margraf of Berlin. His methods and processes were repeated and improved by Bergman and Scheele, theirs by Klaproth, and Klaproth's by Vauquelin. But the art of analysing minerals owes also much of its accuracy to the labours of Kirwan and Chenevix, and to such a degree of perfection has it already arrived that, out of five or six substances of which the mineral to be analysed may consist, the chemist shall ascertain the precise quantity of each, and detect the presence, even, of such as do not amount to $\frac{1}{500}$ part of the whole.

The works of the above-mentioned chemists will be found to afford the best helps to the acquisition of a thorough knowledge of the art of analysing mineral substances. But a manual or compendium, exhibiting in a small compass a general view of the subject and describing the more simple and easy methods of analysis, may also be found to be useful for the purpose of preparing the chemical student for the study of larger works, or for the accommodation of such persons as may want time, or opportunity, or inclination to study the subject minutely. Mr. Accum's book seems to have been intended to exhibit to the reader such a general view. It was undertaken by the express desire of a number of gentlemen, to whom he had delivered a course of private lectures on practical chemistry, and the task imposed upon him was, "to draw up a set of concise directions to enable a person not intimately acquainted with analytical chemistry to examine such unknown minerals as he may meet with so as readily to ascertain their *nature* and principal component parts."

Although this sounds something like a wish to acquire a great deal of knowledge at the expence of very little labour, we do not mean to say that Mr. Accum's compliance with the request may not be attended with the very best effects, especially as, in the execution of his plan, he has been induced to surpass the limits which he had originally in view. For he informs us that he has exhibited not only the best methods of analysing such minerals as are more abundant in nature, but such also as are of less frequent occurrence, and has thus "enabled the chemical student to determine not only the *nature* but also the class, genus, and species to which an unknown mineral belongs, according to any of the adopted systems of mineralogy."—This is doing all that could have been expected, and perhaps something more. For we do not exactly comprehend what is meant by ascertaining or determining, by analysis, the *nature* of a mineral, in contradistinction to the ascertaining of its principal component parts, or of its class, genus, and species. The young chemist must imagine from this mode of expression that there is some inexplicable and occult quality in a mineral called its *nature*, altogether different from the properties by which its class, genus, species, or component parts are characterized, which it is the object of his analysis to discover, but which, yet, he is unable to comprehend. Is it the properties of the mineral in general? But minerals have properties which are called physical and external as well as chemical, and which are not to be ascer-

tained by analysis. The phrase therefore is objectionable still. In short it is too vague and indefinite for the situation in which it occurs. If, however, the object of the experimenter is merely to ascertain the class, genus, or species of minerals, a shorter and less difficult road to the attainment of his end would be to confine his researches solely to the external characters of minerals, or to the science of mineralogy properly so called. But Mr. Accum says, that "the minerals selected [by him] as subjects of experiment have been considered merely with regard to their chemical habitudes, that is, abstractedly from all external characters." It will be found however, by inspection, that the external characters of minerals are frequently mentioned in the course of the work, and as we think with a view to ascertain their species or component parts. Indeed there are but few instances in which the experimenter is not supposed to be already acquainted with the class, genus, and species of the mineral to be analysed, before he begins his analysis, and that must be from its external characters. But so far is this mode of procedure from being in any degree improper that it is absolutely necessary. For after the young experimentalist has taken all the assistance he can from the physical or external characters of a mineral, he will still have enough to do. Till he has acquired a competent knowledge of his instruments of analysis, their powers, properties, and uses; and a considerable degree of dexterity in the application of them, he must not attempt the analysis of any unknown minerals, but confine his operations to substances whose component parts he may ascertain, or guess at from their external characters, following, step by step, the processes of such chemists as have already analysed them with success, and if after a good deal of practice in this way he becomes at length qualified to undertake and execute with a tolerable degree of accuracy the analysis of any mineral whose component parts he cannot otherwise ascertain, his exertions have not been in vain.

So much for the object of Mr. Accum's essay, which commences with some preliminary observations on mineralogy and the analysis of minerals, to which there is annexed a very good account of the general nature of the operations and instruments of analysis, and of the apparatus necessary for conducting experiments. These are stated under the heads of pounding, trituration, levigation, weighing, solution, precipitation, filtration, decantation, elutrition, evaporation, distillation, abstraction, reduction, roasting, vitrification, stratification, granulation, fusion—chemical tests or reagents—crucibles, furnaces, (the most useful and commodious of which is the portable universal furnace sold by F. Accum, No. 11, Soho), retorts, lutes, rods, glasses. Then follows a general classification of minerals, prefaced by a survey of the vast assemblage and variety of heterogeneous bodies of which the solid parts of the globe consist. They are said to be arranged with an *irregularity* of distribution which may well excite our surprize and arrest our attention. But we must confess that we have always been struck rather with the *regularity* than *irregularity* of distribution observable in the immense masses as well as minuter parts of matter which constitute the mineral kingdom, suggesting the idea of a designing cause and indicating that the hand which arranged them is divine!—The usual mode of classification is adopted by which minerals are divided into four classes—ores, earths and stones, mineral or native salts, inflammable fossils.

1st. Of Ores.—After giving some directions for distinguishing metallic ores from other minerals, Mr. Accum finds out, that no general method of analysing them can be given which can possibly prove useful to those who are not skilled in chemical pursuits. As this defeats in a great measure the primary object of the essay, the next best expedient is to give an analysis of the different genera of ores one by one. In this we think Mr. Accum has been successful enough. The usual methods of analysis are stated in a manner sufficiently perspicuous to entitle them to the attention of the chemical student, but certainly with more minuteness of detail than the object he had in view required. In some cases, however, he is rather too concise. He states a few of the properties of the ore of platinum, but gives no analysis of it at all. Why was not Proust's method of analysing it mentioned? If it is not altogether accurate, it is at least an approximation to accuracy, and ought the rather to have been mentioned as it is the only method of analysing this ore yet known. The analysis of the ores is concluded with an example of the analysis of an ore composed of different metals, for which the preceding processes are supposed to have prepared the experimenter.

2dly. Of Earths and Stones.—This part of the analysis is prefaced by a few remarks on the natural history and characteristic properties of earths and stones, which are divided into ten genera according to the then supposed number of earths, the genus of the mineral being determined by the earth which it contains in the greatest abundance. This mode of determining the genus is sufficiently accurate for the purpose of general analysis; but we thought it had been known before the publication of Mr. Accum's book, that agustine, the new earth of Tromsdorf, turns out to be only phosphate of lime. As the term will be, now, no longer used except in relating Tromsdorf's mistake, it is scarcely worth while observing that Mr. Accum's orthography of it, *agustine*, is not the right one. The name is derived from the Greek word αγευστος, *tasteless*, and not from the Latin word Augustus. The processes of analysis will be found to be in general sufficiently correct; but Mr. Accum ought to have known that in processes where potass is employed as an instrument of analysis, a crucible of platinum cannot be used, as directed in process first of the second division of the general analysis of earths and stones, owing to the action of potass on that metal, and the rather because the effects of that action, as observed by Mr. Chenevix, are mentioned in his own system of practical chemistry, which was published more than a twelvemonth ago. To the analysis of earths and stones are annexed a few "*lines* transcribed from Kirwan's Essay on Philosophical Agriculture," from which we were at first led to suppose that Mr. Kirwan had written an essay on philosophical agriculture in verse, which we had never heard of before, but in the perusal we found that these lines

are in prose, and are extracted from the essay intitled, The Manures most advantageously applicable to the various Sorts of Soils, &c.

3dly. Of mineral or native salts.—The discussion of this part of the subject is much obscured from want of plan, which puzzles and embarrasses the reader not a little. In the introductory remarks, salts are defined to be substances consisting of an earthy, alkaline, or metallic base, combined with an acid. Of course the reader does not expect to find any other species of substance called by that name. By and bye however, he finds acids and also alkalies, according to the ancient acceptation of the term, included among the salts. In this department of the work, Mr. Accum says, he is to consider "*merely*" the combinations of alkalies with acids, as the other species of salts have been considered under the heads of ores, earths and stones. But besides the section on the analysis of salts with alkaline bases, we find also a section on the analysis of salts with metallic bases, and another on the analysis of salts with earthy bases. Mr. Accum ought to have known better what he was doing.

4thly. Of Inflammable Fossils.—To the analysis of this species of substances, are prefixed some remarks on the natural history of coals, stating the situations in which they occur, and the opinions which have been entertained concerning their formation. The method of analysis stated by Mr. Accum, is that of Kirwan. It is therefore unnecessary to make any remarks upon it.

In addition to what has been already said, we have only to observe that Mr. Accum's essay is certainly calculated to be of considerable utility to the practical chemist, though we do not think that it is calculated to supersede the use of other introductory treatises. The price of the book also, is by much too high. We know a book containing an excellent epitome of the whole system of chemistry, and all that is necessary to a general view of the analysis of minerals, which may be had for almost the one half of the price, we mean Henry's Epitome of Chemistry.

It is to be wished that Mr. Accum's stile had been somewhat more elegant and correct, for then we should have heard nothing of determining "not only the *nature*, but also the class, genus and species *to which* an unknown mineral belongs," nor of "certain general principles and manipulations which *characterise, and are requisite for* the analysis of each individual" mineral; nor of finding out whether a salt "has a metallic, earthy, or an alkali for its basis;" nor of elutrition for washing, nor of ustulation for roasting.

K.

The Painter's and Varnisher's Guide, or a Treatise both in Theory and Practice on the Art of making and applying Varnishes on the different Kinds of Painting, and on the Method of Preparing Colours. &c. &c. By P. F. Tingry, 8*vo*. 12*s*. *Kearsley.*

In consequence of some ideas thrown out by the author on the art of varnishing, in his public lectures, the Society established at Geneva for the encouragement of the arts, agriculture, and commerce, was of opinion that a methodical work on that subject would be a valuable acquisition to the learned world. Amidst the attention paid to every other branch of chemical science, the art of varnishing was in a great measure neglected. *Watin* had indeed written a good work on the subject, but every thing relating to the history of the colouring parts, and to the operations which make them appear with their true properties had been there omitted or neglected. It was still requisite, therefore, that the principles on which the art is founded, and by which it can be carried to the greatest perfection, should be more fully explained and illustrated. To effect this purpose, and to supply the deficiencies in the work of *Watin* has been the object of the author of the present publication.

The work is divided into two parts. The first is destined to make known the substances which concur to the composition of varnish, as well as the processes by which artists are enabled to give them the requisite properties. The second consists of an examination of the colouring substances, and of every thing that relates to the different branches of common painting. After describing these substances, several observations naturally arising from the subject are made, such as those on the origin of colours, and on the particular processes which enrich the art of varnishing, with a great number of colouring substances not always furnished by nature in that state in which the painter employs them. In describing the different preparations, the reader is conducted from the simple to the compound, and enabled to follow the transitions from the lightest colours to those which, with the same varnishes, borrow, from the nature of the colouring substances, modifications of tints.

The first part of the work is divided into five general heads or chapters. The first chapter contains an historical account of the nature and properties of the substances which form the basis of varnishes, and of the external qualities by which the best kinds may be known. This is extremely proper and useful in a work which proposes to treat the subject methodically, and from its first principles; and more especially requisite, when we consider that the ingredients employed in the different compositions of varnish are in general described in works which form no part of the libraries of pupils or of artists. The author has here adhered closely to his subject, and banished from it all those articles which are foreign to the particular art under his consideration. Some just and pertinent observations are occasionally introduced, calculated to excite a taste for study, to facilitate instruction, and to render the information contained in the work as full and complete as possible.

The second chapter treats of the fluids, which serve as an excipient or vehicle to varnish, and which painters distinguish by the improper appellation of solvents. These the author has treated in a manner calculated to excite a greater interest than if he had only given a bare nomenclature. He has exhibited them under all those relations which tend to make known their nature, their particular properties, and the modifications resulting from the preliminary preparations to which they are subjected. Different processes for producing several of the most essential substances, both of the dry and liquid sort, are described

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in this and the former chapter. The most convenient and effectual processes are also pointed out, with the most proper methods of proving the quality of the substances produced.

The third chapter contains some general observations on varnishes and the art of the varnisher, which is defined, and its component parts settled. These are followed by a division of varnishes, into two classes, which are again subdivided into *genera* and *species*. The first class comprehends the varnishes used for objects of natural history, the *genera* of which are borrowed from that of the substances employed, and which may belong to the vegetable kingdom, as the solution of any pure gum; or to the animal kingdom, such as gelatin extracted from different parts of animals. The varnishes of this class, the author dismisses with a few observations. The second class, which is the principal object of the work, comprehends the varnishes resulting from the solution of one or more resinous substances in a spirituous or oily vehicle or fluid. The author has divided this class into five *genera*, each of which has its proper species. These genera and species are founded on the essential quality of the varnishes, on the state of their consistence, and on their drying quality more or less striking. The first genus comprehends the most drying varnishes that can be obtained with *alcohol*. The second genus presents *formulæ* for varnish nearly similar to the first; but they are of a less drying nature, in consequence of the addition of less drying resins. This genus gives different species of imitative, or changing varnish, which do not require so much solidity as those destined for glazing metallic surfaces. The third genus is reserved for compositions in which the nature of the excipient is changed. Alcohol gives place here to essential oils, and in particular to essence of turpentine. This genus comprehends changing varnishes, and those distinguished by the name of *Mordants*. The fourth genus is destined for the employment of pure copal, treated with essence of turpentine, and even with *ether*. These varnishes vie in point of solidity with those of the following *genus*, and ought to be preferred to them. The fifth genus admits of fat, drying oils being used as the excipient. It contains the fat varnishes made with copal, with amber, and with caoutchouc. Their colour, which is rather dark, confines the use of them to grounds which are of a dark colour. Each of these *genera* are subdivided into several species, and each composition is accompanied with particular remarks relating to the process, to the nature and quality of the varnish, and the circumstances most favourable to its application.

The two following chapters, which conclude the first part of the work, consist of general observations and directions in the preparation of varnish on a large scale, with remarks on the influence which the solar light has to render essence of turpentine proper for the solution of copal, so as to compose a durable and colourless varnish. In the course of these observations several improvements in the processes are suggested by the author, which are well worthy of attention.

The second part of the work treats of the preparation of colours, and the various modes of applying them in the different kinds of painting.

This part consists of six different heads or chapters: The first of these contains an historical account of the colouring substances used in painting, with a description of the processes employed to extract them, and the methods of preparing or modifying them. The second chapter contains a philosophical account of the origin of colours, applied to material colours, simple and compound; with a description of the processes which art employs to vary the number and richness of the tints, resulting from a mixture of them. This chapter contains several ingenious remarks on the idea of Isaac Vossius respecting colours, who was the first who started the notion, afterwards so clearly established by the immortal Newton. The third chapter treats of the extent that may be given to the use of the turpentine copal varnishes, by impregnating them with various solid colouring parts, transparent, and proper for answering the purpose of glazing on metallic *laminæ* smooth or ornamented; for imitating transparent enamel; and for repairing those accidents which frequently happen to enameled articles. The fourth chapter gives precepts respecting the application of varnishes coloured or not coloured, which the artist or amateur ought always to keep in remembrance. Several ingenious remarks occur here, on the different kinds of painting, and on varnished linen and silk. The fifth chapter treats of painting in distemper, and the composition of colour best suited to this branch of the art, and concludes with some general precepts. The sixth and last chapter treats of the instruments necessary in the art of varnishing, with observations on the use of them.

The art of varnishing and the preparation of colours had certainly not experienced that attention from the chemical world, which its value deserved. It may perhaps at first view appear trivial; but it in no small degree adds to our enjoyments; lessens the ravages occasioned by time in various objects of value; is interesting to our commerce and manufactures; and may suggest some theoretic ideas which will not be useless to science. Our author has suggested many improvements in the art, especially in the varnishes of copal and of amber, which will be of great utility to the artist. The manner in which the author has treated his subject is very full and complete, and his work is undoubtedly the most finished that at present exists, on the art of the varnisher and house-painter. It is certainly upon the whole well deserving of the public patronage and approbation. R.

Medical Sketches of the Expedition to Egypt from India. By James M'Gregor, *Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, of London; Surgeon to the Royal Regiment of Horse Guards; and lately Superintending Surgeon to the Indian Army in Egypt.* 8vo. *London* 1804. *Murray.*

In consequence of an order from the Court of Directors to the Indian government, the following account of the diseases that prevailed in the Indian army destined for the expedition to Egypt, was drawn

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up by the gentleman who was at the head of the medical department in that army. The utility of such an account must be obvious. Some diseases occurred with which the scientific practitioners of cold climates could be but little acquainted, and many of them appeared with symptoms very different from those which the same maladies exhibit under a milder temperature. In order to be fully acquainted with the nature of any disease, and to find an adequate antidote, it is necessary to acquire a competent knowledge of the different appearances which it assumes and the different degrees of malignity which it exhibits in different situations. Diseases appear under their most terrible and destructive forms in hot countries, while the science of medicine, like every other branch of knowledge, has been cultivated with the greatest ardour and success in the cold or temperate regions. This circumstance has certainly retarded the progress of the healing art in no inconsiderable degree. But the exertions that have been making for some time past by gentlemen eminent for talents and medical skill to ascertain the nature of diseases by an investigation of their symptoms in every situation, promise to remove a very material obstacle, which has hitherto so much obstructed the improvement of medicine. The progressive advancement of the several branches of useful knowledge, it is impossible to view without satisfaction, but the ardour and self-denial which we often see exhibited for the improvement of medical science, must command respect and admiration. When we find that men exist who brave every peril to which man can be exposed, who willingly forego every comfort to be found at home in the society of their friends and relations, and wander from climate to climate, setting at defiance every danger of land and sea, and breathing an atmosphere impregnated with pestilence, in order to further the means of eradicating disease, or softening its malignity, as if every wish was concentrated in a love of science and benevolence to mankind; when we see such examples of humanity and fortitude displayed in these times, who shall say that human nature has degenerated? Imperfect as the science of medicine now confessedly is, who can presume to set limits to the advantages that may be derived from such indefatigable exertions? The small-pox was once an enemy little less formidable and destructive to the human race than the plague itself. The former has been in a great measure subdued, and bids fair to be extirpated, and the additional light thrown daily upon the medical science by experience and skill, encourage us to indulge the hope that the latter will share a similar fate. The Sketches now before us furnish a collection of very important facts, to which the author alone could have access, and promises to afford a considerable facility to the investigation of the diseases of which he treats. The plan is as follows:—

The whole work is divided into three parts, the first of which consists of a Journal of the Indian expedition to Egypt; the second treats of the causes of the diseases which prevailed in the Indian army, and suggests some means of preventing such diseases; and the third treats of the diseases themselves more particularly, with their symptoms and effects, and the methods of cure that were employed. These diseases are divided into two classes—the former consisting of the epidemic diseases of Egypt, and the latter, of the other diseases of the Indian army. To the former class belong the Plague and the *Opthalmia* of Egypt. Some judicious general remarks are here made upon the nature of these two diseases, and some means of prevention and methods of cure are discussed with considerable skill and perspicuity. The diseases of the other class are—Fever, Hepatitis, Dysentery, Pneumonia and Rheumatism, Small-pox, Diarrhœa, Scurvy, Syphilis, the Guinea-worm, Ulcers, and Tetanus. The whole is concluded with some general remarks on the yellow fever, and the resemblance which this disease bears to the plague.

From the Journal of the Expedition we learn, that the Indian army consisted of 8000 men. The first division under Colonel Murray, sailed from Bombay in January 1801, and after a tedious voyage, on the 16th of May came to anchor in *Kossier*-bay, a place situated on the western coast of the Red Sea, the prevailing winds rendering it impossible at that time to get so far up as *Suez*. The second division under Colonel Beresford, sailed from *Point de Galle* in Ceylon, on the 19th of February, and on the 19th of May disembarked at *Kossier*. The last division under Colonel Ramsay, arrived somewhat later in the year, and were not able to cross the Desert before July.—In the month of June the army crossed the Desert of Thebes, a route unattempted by any army for 3000 years before.

The prevailing disease at that time was a Diarrhœa, occasioned by the water which contained much sulphate of magnesia. There was, however, on the whole but little sickness during the march, though almost every exciting cause existed. The heat was intense. Torrents of sand were rolled along and entered the lungs and stomach, wich occasioned a great deal of *Nausea*. At the beginning of July, the troops reached the banks of the Nile, and encamped near *Ghenné*. On the opposite banks were seen the magnificent ruins of Tentyra or Dendira and the fine temple of Isis. About the end of July the troops embarked and sailed down the Nile for Lower Egypt, and after a navigation of about 400 miles arrived at Ghiza,* where they found one regiment of the English army. The remaining part of the Journal till May 1802, consists only of details respecting the numbers of men who had been at different times seized with disease, and the motions of the army. All this possesses but very little interest, as the object of the expedition had been accomplished before the arrival of the Indian army. On the 3d of May 1802, in consequence of orders from England, the army left Alexandria and crossed the desert of *Suez*, with a great deal more ease than it had experienced in the march over the desert of Thebes. The whole with the exception of the 7th Bombay regiment arrived at Suez by the end of the month. On the 3d of June these troops embarked, and about the beginning of September arrived in India in an excellent state of health. In this Journal of our author, one thing occurs which is worthy of remark. It is well known that several extraordinary things related by

* The ancient Memphis.

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Bruce, the Abyssinian traveller, together with his mistake relative to the time of an eclipse, had rendered his narrative liable to a great deal of suspicion. The Indian army in its route to Egypt travelled for a considerable time in the road over which Bruce had formerly passed. The author examined the descriptions which this traveller has given of these places, and his account of the latitudes, and in every instance found them nicely accurate.

The causes of the diseases that prevail in Egypt are principally these. After the Nile, which at its overflowing covers a great extent of country, has subsided, there is a noxious exhalation from the mud, and from the putrid animal and vegetable matter left behind. The *effluvia* of these substances acting on the human body account for many of the Egyptian diseases. The extreme filth of the inhabitants of Egypt, their poor diet, their narrow, close, and ill ventilated apartments, generally much crowded, with the extreme narrowness of their streets, and the bad police of their towns, add a considerable degree of malignancy to their fevers. The dry parching wind which comes over the desert, and which at certain seasons blows in Egypt and Arabia, is a great cause of disease, particularly of *Ophthalmia*. The fall of rain too at the time the army was in Egypt, was greater than on former years, and this among other things caused the season of the plague to set in much earlier than usual.† Ghiza, the ancient Memphis, was found very unhealthy on account of the armies alternately of Mamelukes, French, English, and Turks, that had encamped there, and left a great deal of filth which occasioned a noxious effluvia. The change of the seasons too was found to be a cause of disease. The native troops escaped much better than the European, which the author ascribes to the very simple diet of the former, which is particularly suited to a warm climate. The means of preventing disease in warm climates mentioned by the author are—airy lodgings, light diet, fresh provisions, clean and comfortable clothing, bathing, and a strict attention to cleanliness of every sort. There is one passage of so much public importance, that it deserves to be quoted:

"The length of time, which most corps had been in a warm climate, deserves to be mentioned, as a cause of the health of the Indian army in Egypt, till attacked by the endemic diseases of the country. No corps in the army had been less than two years in a warm climate. During the late war, *the value of the Cape of Good Hope, to us, was often felt and acknowledged in India.* After being at this healthy settlement and there seasoned to a warm climate, the 80th, 84th, and 86th regiments, and the Scotch brigade, landed in India, in an effective state, never before witnessed with European troops in that country. This fact is not undeserving public consideration.

"The fact cannot be too often repeated or too generally known, that nothing conduces more to the health of a corps, than the preserving a good internal economy in it. A good commanding officer has, in general, a healthy regiment. Every thing can be done in the prevention of disease; but, unfortunately, very often, little in the treatment when it supervenes.

† These circumstances I learned from a member of the French Institute, and from the *Pharmacien en Chef* to the French army, *who often related to me the order given him by Bonaparte to poison the wounded with Opium.* Note by the Author.

"One point remains still, and I know no fitter place to introduce it than here.

"It has been mentioned, that liver complaints rarely recovered in Egypt, and, likewise, that cases of hepatitis and flux, which, in India, had long remained obstinate, here yielded of themselves and without medicine. This fact leads me to the suggestion of a measure, which, I conceive, would save many useful lives. It is, whenever a case of fever, dysentery, or liver complaint, in India, is obstinate, or continues for a long time on the reports, to send such cases to sea or to Europe.

"It is a truth, well known to every medical man in India, that, after continuing ill of these disorders a certain time, soldiers or sailors never do well there. They linger, and are at length carried off, either by a suppuration in the liver or ulceration of the intestines. In India, when patients, whose situation in life permits them to take a voyage to Europe, are in this state, they never fail to take it, and, most commonly, are recovered by it; but there is no hope for the poor soldier or sailor there.

"The same benefit might, however, be acquired for the soldier, and with little, or perhaps, no expence: it is not always necessary that the voyage be a long one, or, that the change of climate be to Britain. Were the cruisers of the company or the king's ships, from time to time, to take on board some of these chronic cases, for one cruise, the men would be frequently recovered by it, and, in many cases, they would soon be capable of doing duty on ship-board, where, in time of war, Europeans are very much wanted, but cannot be found in India. Whenever a voyage in India is not attended with complete success, a voyage to Europe still offers one chance for life. The prospect of this, by removing that despondency, which in chronic diseases is a never-failing attendant, and which we have too often found baffle every mode of treatment, would cheer the patient, and of itself do infinite good. Men of his Majesty's regiments might be brought home, and attached to the recruiting companies there, whence able healthy men might be sent in exchange for them, while the invalid from India would at the same time recover his health in a country-quarter at home, and be equally useful as another man on the recruiting service.

"Humanity, as well as policy, loudly calls for something to be done. From what I have seen, I fear that invalids and ineffective men are sometimes detained by far too long in India."

The third part of the work is occupied with a detail of cases which occurred in the various diseases with which the troops were affected. The different applications employed in the cure, and their various success form a collection of facts of no small value. The effects of mercury and calomel in preventing the plague, when given at the very first appearance of the disease, is well deserving of the notice of medical practitioners. At the end of the work a table is given pointing out the resemblance between the plague and the yellow-fever. The similarity is indeed so striking that it is scarcely possible to doubt that both are the same disease, varying only in malignity from the different situations in which each are found to prevail.

This book is written without any great pretensions to an extraordinary degree of knowledge in the scientific parts of medicine as opposed to the practical. The object of the author appears to have been to lay before the world a clear and correct statement of facts which may be of the last importance to those who devote themselves to the investigation of the particu-

lar diseases which are here described. Considering the work then in this point of view, without adverting to what a man of greater science might have done in the author's situation, we have no hesitation in saying that this is a very useful publication, and well worthy the serious attention of the medical body, particularly of those gentlemen who may be called upon to practice in the East or West Indies, or any hot climate. H.

A Narrative exposing a Variety of Irregular Transactions in one of the Departments of Foreign Corps, during the late War. By Mr. James Poole, *several Years a Regimental Inspector, and since Deputy Inspector General in that Department. London* 1804. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The facts contained in this narrative cannot be read without the deepest interest by any one who is concerned for the welfare of his country. The employment of foreign mercenaries in our service has by some been most loudly recommended; these corps have been pointed out to the public attention with such profuse applauses as to throw our native troops entirely into the shade; the disbanding of a portion of these foreigners at the peace, has been urged as an accusation against our late ministers, and the destruction of our army almost augured from its being deprived of this precious limb. How justly these sentiments are founded will appear from a few of the facts stated in the narrative before us.

These facts, we are aware, ought to be received with caution. The gentleman who gives the narrative to the public, states his motive for doing so to be indignation at the conduct of his colleagues in office, who had baffled his efforts to restrain abuses, and continued by chicane to elude his attempts to bring the offenders to justice. These circumstances may with some render his testimony suspected, as he may be supposed to have intermixed a considerable portion of private animosity with public zeal. On the other hand, he executed his duty of Inspector with much credit, and greatly to the satisfaction of Generals Stuart and Moore, to the latter of whom he appeals: he has published without reserve his own name, as well as the names of those he accuses; and his narrative still remains uncontradicted.

The employment of foreign instead of native soldiers can only be justified upon the grounds, either that the foreigners can be raised and maintained at a much less expence, or that they are found to make better soldiers. The zealous partizans of foreign corps dwell chiefly upon the article of expence; Mr. Poole has presented us with the mode of calculating adopted to prove the great saving which results from this system. A brother Inspector writes thus to Mr. P.:

"I have lately been employed in making a comparative estimate of the expence of a foreign with an English regiment; and strange, though true as Gospel, even that gulph of a corps, the Royal Etranger, does not by a very considerable difference, cost so much as a British regiment of equal establishment. This has been such a triumph that I do think, even at the peace, foreigners (particularly Swiss) will be kept up."

On this calculation Mr. Poole observes:

"I thought this was strange, knowing the soldiers to have the same pay, and the officers much higher—I afterwards found that they had estimated the (British) soldiers pay in one, at a shilling per diem, being the time when the pay of the army was raised, and calculated the other at sixpence, although we know the foreign soldiers' pay was raised accordingly, though the order came some weeks later. The bounties to foreign recruits are said also to be much less costly to government; yet I believe if their enormous desertion be calculated it will prove higher."

Thus it appears that the minds of the people in power were confirmed in their ideas of the great saving arising from the employment of foreign corps, by a calculation which estimated the British soldier's pay at the new rise of a shilling a day, and that of the foreign soldiers at the old rate of a sixpence, although in a few weeks after, both received the same pay. The pay of the foreign officers it appears was *much* higher than that of the British; and consequently, a foreign regiment, even when receiving no more than its *regular* allowances, must be *much more expensive* than a native one. But it is not to the mere regular pay that the expence of keeping up a foreign regiment was limited. Over and above their pay, and all usual allowances, it was thought proper to grant the officers *rations* of forage for the maintenance of a horse; and as a further indulgence, it was not deemed requisite that they should actually have the horses, although they received the rations for them. Seventy officers were allotted to each regiment, and these received 135 rations a day. The expence incurred from these rations for fictitious horses, during the *recruiting* of seven or eight regiments in Germany, was *acknowledged* to the amount of £60,000. But the real total must have greatly exceeded this, as Mr. Poole mentioning the rations he was ordered to distribute to the regiment of Viomenil, says

"*Five thousand three hundred and twenty-eight of these rations were non-effective, or fictitious rations*; 570 *only were real*, making, with 164 afterwards claimed, a total of 6062, being the number carried into account—the amount of 43 days forage for one regiment only, previous to its joining the line of march of the others."

It must indeed be acknowledged, that the foreign corps were obliged to share the fruits of these indulgences with the government contractors. Sometimes they received only two-thirds, and at others only one-third of the rations: the surplus, however, did not return to government, but went as a *douceur* into the pocket of the government contractor, &c. The expence was still the same to the nation; and such are the *savings* arising from foreign corps!

Much stress, however, has been laid upon the cheapness with which foreign troops may be raised, and the small bounties required for this purpose, in proportion to those paid in this country. The bounties, indeed, are in general considerably less for foreign troops, although in some instances mentioned by Mr. Poole, they extended to £16 for each recruit. They were at other times smaller, even including arms and cloathing, but these articles were always found so bad, as to require to be changed before the troops were fit for service. But, however low the bounties may be in the first instance, Mr. Poole affirms, that "if the enormous desertions be calculated, they will prove higher." In several countries on the continent

it seems to be a species of traffic with the natives, to enlist for the sake of the bounties and then desert to go in quest of new gains. "Italy," says Mr. P. "abounds with unemployed persons, who will enlist for the smallest bounties, but who desert afterwards in great numbers." In a conversation which he had with some of the other Inspectors, he says

"Conversing together on the little progress made by the regiment I had just left at Dillenburg, they told me that those round Pyrmont were nearly in the same situation, the men enlisted being chiefly deserters, who, in spite of every vigilance on the part of the officers, contrived to desert again, in search of fresh bounties; and some men whom they had recruited from amongst the French prisoners did the same."

The methods which were obliged to be taken, in order to keep these foreign recruits to our standards are almost incredible:

"I cannot help mentioning, at this time the desertion was so great, that, in the regiment of Laval, the serjeants had orders every night to take away from the recruits their shoes and the most indispensable part of their dresses, but all to no purpose—and also, that one day being walking round the chateau of Pyrmont, where the venerable Marshal de Broglie was lodged, and had a guard from one of our regiments of his name, they had posted a centinel, so lately recruited from amongst the French prisoners, that I heard him sing the national airs for near a quarter of an hour, when an officer observing him, got him relieved by another—a bad mode of composing regiments is that of taking recruits from amongst the prisoners of the enemy."

Such is the result of those small bounties with which it has been boasted that foreign recruits may be raised. It is not the bounty given to a single foreigner, that is to be opposed to that of a single native; the bounties received by five, seven, or sometimes a dozen other foreigners who have deserted, must also be added to the account of the former. In this manner it appears that a British regiment may in reality be raised for half or even a third part of the money requisite to raise a foreign regiment; and may be also maintained at a much less expence.

But if there is nothing gained in the article of expence, in what is it that a foreign corps can be compared to a native one? What confidence can be placed in a set of vagabonds who enlist for the sake of a bounty, and watch the first opportunity to desert in quest of a new one? What dependance can any officer have on men whose shoes and small-clothes must every night be taken from them, to prevent their deserting before morning, and all this to no purpose? We own that these men, if brought before an enemy in a situation where *desertion is impossible*, may fight very well in their own defence; as happened with the regiment of Dillon, when cooped up in Egypt, although while in Corsica, Mr. P. tells us, "the desertion from that regiment was enormous." But where an opportunity for desertion offers, little confidence is to be placed in the fidelity of these foreigners, even in the face of an enemy, especially if victory inclines to his side. Thus after considerable success at first in recruiting our foreign regiments, Mr. P. tells us;

"The appearances, at first favourable, had entirely changed, since the armies of the Republic gained the left bank of the Rhine; and instead of men coming from the French side, the few who had crossed it, returned to join the successful army.—Some of our regiments, having scarcely more men than officers, they also deserted, very soon after they had got their bounties."

Such is the conduct to be expected from troops who are merely attracted to the standard of a foreign power by the lures of money, and who feel no sort of interest in the cause for which they engage to fight. While British troops can be procured and maintained at a less expence, while our armies can be recruited with men who are deeply interested in the welfare of their country, and whose hearts beat high for the honour of the British name, what madness can urge our deluded statesmen to squander the public revenues and corrupt our military establishment by such foreign levies as we have here described?

These observations we felt ourselves impelled to make on a subject so deeply interesting to the nation. The principal object of Mr. Poole's Narrative, however, is to point out certain abuses existing in the civil establishment which was entrusted with the management of the foreign corps. The contractors and inspectors seem, by a mutual understanding, to have made a very capital affair of it.

Mr. Poole computes that Mr. Devaux, the contractor for the regiments of which Mr. P. was one of the Inspectors, cleared in little more than a year, the pretty sum of £100,000!! The inspectors, by whose connivance such transactions were carried on, seem, according to Mr. P.'s account, to have profited no less by the good things that fell in their way. They seem to have had always an *interest* in conniving at the doings of the contractors. Mr. Woodford, the Inspector-General of these regiments, seems to have been equally distinguished by his "unconquerable predilection for foreigners," and his aversion to examine into their accounts. These he wished his deputies to pass in the lump, and as "he hated to be spoken to on business," he consigned over that troublesome part of his office to Mr. Gardiner, one of the Inspectors. Some of the curious methods in which money was charged on government, are mentioned by Mr. Poole:

"I had not been long with the regiment, when under this class of expenditure, (extraordinary expences) a charge of some hundred livres was inserted, which an officer recruiting in Holland stated he had lost into the canal at Delft; and this I refused to admit, because, though Mr. Woodford did not give me any rule to go by, yet he told me distinctly, that he should allow the extraordinary expences only on the Inspector's approval. I therefore determined to hold back on this charge, for had I once admitted it I could not afterwards have rejected similar ones, so I referred it to Mr. Woodford without certifying it.

"I soon received a letter from Mr. Gardiner expressive of Mr. Woodford's dissatisfaction that I referred the article to him; and this letter now enabled me to form an idea of my superior, being written by Mr. Gardiner in a style of great personal friendship towards me, describing how little Mr. Woodford liked such references. He also said, that in future I had better address my letters to him, which now, or soon after this time, I began wholly to do; and nearly from this time I may date the success, though perhaps not the commencement, of that disingenuous conduct in Mr. Gardiner of which I complain.

"In the account of the next month, I was astonished

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to find a still larger sum inserted in the extraordinary charges of this regiment, and stated to have been lost by the same officer in Holland, in a manner altogether as improbable, being at his embarkation on the Zuyder Sea. I of course objected to it, but transmitted it to Pyrmont unsigned; yet I did not lay any particular stress on this in my letter, for now I began to think, that such an improbable story was some artifice to embroil me with Mr. Woodford, or with the colonel, though I could not guess at that time what quarter it should proceed from: I had an answer from Mr. Gardiner, expressing to me again Mr. Woodford's dissatisfaction at the difficulties which arose, and assuring me he was so much attached to foreigners, that it was no way agreeable to him."

We shall not quote the insinuations which follow, and which would induce us to believe that these charges were not made without a secret understanding. Mr. Poole informs us, that he made every effort to stem the torrent of corruption; that he resisted all the arts of his colleague Mr. Gardiner, who attempted to bring him into a participation of the frauds practised on government. On returning home, he made many attempts to see Mr. Windham and explain to him the transactions abroad; but in these he was long frustrated by the means which Mr. Gardiner employed. It was not till after Mr. Windham was out of office, that Mr. P. had an opportunity of representing to him the frauds committed in the foreign department. Mr. W. testified surprise at some of these circumstances; but "he seemed rather impressed with astonishment and concern than anger." He had certainly been imposed upon by those in the subordinate departments of his office; but it was his prejudice in favour of foreign corps that could alone have so long prevented him from making the necessary inquiries into these abuses.

Mr. Poole's attempts to prevent abuses, seem to have excited much odium against him amongst his colleagues, as they lived in continual dread of his exposing their transactions. Mr. Gardiner, he states, had also deceived him with regard to the date of his commission, and by this means intercepted the profits and preferment which in due course should have come to Mr. Poole. This fraud Mr. P. has now laid before the public, and seems inclined to bring before a court of justice, were it not that he suspects Mr. Gardiner has been tampering with one of his most important witnesses.

We shall conclude with one more extract from a letter of Mr. Gardiner's to Mr. Poole. It is an edifying lesson to those in power. Mr. Gardiner was now established in the foreign office at home; and writes with most courtier-like sang-froid of the abuses committed by himself and his superiors:

"This vile system of procrastinating increases rather than abates. And we are all employed in bringing to light evils past, instead of concerting measures to prevent future depredations. However, I have no more reason to quarrel with this same system *than divines with sin and the Devil:* for neither of us could be employed but for this perversion of moral faculty. The only use to which I am converted is the examination of old accounts. I docket and make up in most official parcels these monuments of peculation. I make my report upon them, hand them from one closet to another; where they will probably lie till some committee (should the mice and moths spare these valuable manuscripts) calls for them.—I could wish something more useful; as it would be more serviceable to myself: for I have not the faith to believe that year after year I shall have my £500 upon such unwarrantable terms. The secret committee of finance may, indeed, call us to question next session as they have done Mr. Lewis in this. However, I do not find that this committee is one jot better employed than myself. Mr. Lewis delivered in a return of his share of the emoluments of his office, amounting to eighteen thousand pounds per annum, and yet his wings are not clipped—this is the very substance of abuse, whilst mine is the poor semblance of it. Mr. Windham barely receives £2,500 per annum, and his deputy touches £18,000. In some cases, it is better to be the man than the master—this is one of them." £.

Sermons on Public Occasions, and a Letter on Theological Study. By Robert, late Archbishop of York. To which are prefixed Memoirs of his Life, by George Hay Drummond, *A.M. Prebendary of York.* 8vo. *pp.* 218.

These Sermons were much applauded on their first publication, and some of them were reprinted with success, nor, we think, has their merit been over-rated either by the public, or the present editor who again presents them as "a work neither unacceptable nor unprofitable to the public at large. The Memoirs prefixed are short, but, perhaps, as prolix as could have been given of a man who does not appear to have courted the ostentatious part of human life, and who contented himself with the silent, yet assiduous discharge of the duties of his high office. As a scholar and a gentleman he is yet remembered by many who did not hesitate to place him in the first class; and as a parliamentary speaker, he was eloquent, firm, and disinterested. His original name was Robert Hay, second son of George Henry, seventh Earl of Kinnoul, and Abigail, youngest daughter of Robert Harley, Earl of Oxford and Mortimer. In 1739, he assumed the name and arms of Drummond, as heir entail to his great grandfather, William, first Viscount of Strathallen. In his diocese, he was distinguished for munificence, and left many monuments of taste and liberality.

The only novelty in the present publication is a "Letter on Theological Study," dated 1760, and addressed probably to some young friend who had just entered the church. On the greater part of this letter as an excellent directory for theological study, we can bestow unqualified praise; but his Grace appears to have belonged to that class usually called Latitudinarian Divines, and to have laid too great a stress, in our opinion, on neglecting the principal studies of a more strict kind. We gather as much from p. 209, in which his Grace, after laying it down as a fundamental principle that "The gracious designs of God towards mankind are conditional, never superseding, but always exciting and co-operating with the endeavours of men, as free, rational, and accountable agents,"—proceeds in these words: "If this be true, (as I believe it to be, if I mistake not both the nature of God and man) and if this were always kept in view, we should hear little of many intricate and senseless questions about the influences of the spirit, and power of grace, predestination, imputed righteousness, justification without works, and other opi-

nions which have from the beginning perplexed and perverted, defiled, and wounded Christianity." In these sentiments it is impossible for us to concur, while we are under any obligation to study or subscribe the articles and homilies of our church, the *subjects* of which are here swept away as having "perplexed and perverted, debased, defiled, and wounded Christianity." More hard words cannot well be brought into one paragraph, nor, we think, be worse applied than to subjects which are the ground-work of our religious faith, and have been preached, illustrated, and insisted upon by some of the wisest and best ornaments of the Church of England, in every age since the Reformation. When, at certain periods, certain principles or articles are so vehemently contested as to occasion personal animosities and separations between good and wise men, it may be prudent not to urge them with an obstinate and perpetual repetition; but to give up articles merely because they are disputed, is to submit to the consequences of a defeat, without a blow, or a struggle.—We have therefore considered it as our duty to advert to this passage, which we are certain will afford pleasure rather to the Arian and Socinian sectaries, than to churchmen; but we have more satisfaction in subscribing to the following opinion of our worthy Metropolitan:—"We have, I verily believe, in our country, the best establishment of Christianity in doctrine and discipline: and the most conducive to every good purpose of society; but yet it behoves us to look impartially into the different controversies, and opinions, and confessions of faith." For this, as well as the other purposes of theological study, the best books are specified in each branch, we mean, such as were in vogue at, or before the date of this letter. R.

Good Tidings; or News from the Farm. By Robert Bloomfield. *4to. 2s. 6d. Vernor and Hood.*

The author of this beautiful little Poem has been already before the public with whom he has established a lasting reputation by his "Farmer's Boy." That reputation will not be diminished by the poem before us. It is dedicated to Dr. Jenner, and the Members of the Jennerian Society for the extermination of the Small Pox. The subject is in general a description of the miseries that have been occasioned by the small-pox, and of the ravages which it spread over every country, together with the blessings that may be derived to mankind from the extermination of this pest from the earth by the introduction of the Cow-pox. The benevolent feelings of Mr. Bloomfield were roused at the happy prospect. His father had died of the small-pox, while our poet was yet an infant; three of his brother's children fell by the same disease: and he himself as a father trembled for his family. The son, the brother, the father, and the friend of mankind all united in the author to hail the expected downfal of this mortal foe to the human race. "The Farmer's Boy" was also interested, for the destroyer of the small-pox came from the farm; the harmless cow supplied the healing antidote. The impulse was given, the harp was again made vocal, and "Good Tidings from the Farm" were sung with characteristic sensibility. The poem commences with a description of a blind boy who had lost his sight by the small-pox. It is dictated by nature, distinguished by the author's usual pleasing simplicity, and upon the whole perhaps the most beautiful part of the poem. We shall therefore transcribe it for the reader's perusal:—

"Where's the Blind Child, so lovely and so fair,
With guileless dimples, and with flaxen hair
That waves in ev'ry breeze? he's often seen
Beside yon cottage wall, or on the green,
With others match'd in spirit and in size,
Health on their cheeks and rapture in their eyes;
That full expanse of voice, to childhood dear,
Soul of their sports, is duly cherish'd here:
And, hark! that laugh is his, that jovial cry;
He hears the ball and trundling hoop brush by,
And runs the giddy course with all his might,
A very child in every thing but sight;
With circumscrib'd but not abated pow'rs,—
Play! the great object of his infant hours;
In many a game he takes a noisy part,
And shows the native gladness of his heart;
But soon he hears, on pleasure all intent,
The new suggestion and the quick assent;
The grove invites, delight thrills every breast—
To leap the ditch and seek the downy nest.
Away they start, leave balls and hoops behind,
And one companion leave——the boy is blind!
His fancy paints their distant paths so gay,
That childish fortitude awhile gives way,
He feels his dreadful loss—yet short the pain,
Soon he resumes his cheerfulness again;
Pond'ring how best his moments to employ,
He sings his little songs of nameless joy,
Creeps on the warm green turf for many an hour,
And plucks by chance the white and yellow flow'r;
Smoothing their stems, while, resting on his knees,
He binds a nosegay which he never sees;
Along the homeward path then feels his way,
Lifting his brow against the shining day,
And, with a playful rapture round his eyes,
Presents a sighing parent with the prize.
"She blest *that* day, which he remembers too,
When he could gaze on heav'n's ethereal blue,
See the young Spring, so lovely to his eyes,
And all the colours of the morning rise.—
'When was this work of bitterness begun?
'How came the blindness of your only son?'
Thus pity prompts full many a tongue to say,
But never, till she slowly wipes away
Th' obtruding tear that trembles in her eye,
This dagger of a question meets reply:
'My boy was healthy, and my rest was sound,
'When last year's corn was green upon the ground:
'From yonder town infection found its way;
'Around me putrid dead and dying lay,
'I trembled for his fate: but all my care
'Avail'd not, for he breath'd the tainted air;
'Sickness ensu'd—in terror and dismay
'I nurs'd him in my arms both night and day,
'When his soft skin from head to foot became
'One swelling purple sore, unfit to name:
'Hour after hour, when all was still beside,
'When the pale night-light in its socket died,
'Alone I sat; the thought still sooths my heart,
'That surely I perform'd a mother's part,
'Watching with such anxiety and pain
'Till he might smile and look on me again;
'But that was not to be—ask me no more:
'GOD keep small-pox and blindness from your door!"

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The author's description of the manner in which his father caught and died of the small-pox, is tender and interesting:—

"There dwelt, beside a brook that creeps along
Midst infant hills and meads unknown to song,
And alder groves, and many a flow'ry lea
Still winding onward to the northern sea,
One to whom poverty and faith were giv'n,
Calm village silence, and the hope of heav'n:
Alone she dwelt; and while each morn brought peace,
And health was smiling on her year's increase,
And haply still a flatt'ring prospect drew,
Twas well,—but there are days of trouble too.
Sudden and fearful, rushing through her frame,
Unusual pains and feverish symptoms came;
Then, when debilitated, faint, and poor,
How sweet to hear a footstep at her door!
To see a neighbour watch life's silent sand,
To hear the sigh, and feel the helping hand!
But woe o'erspread the interdicted ground,
And consternation seiz'd the hamlet's round:
Uprose the pest—its fated victim died;
The foul contagion spread on ev'ry side;
She, who had help'd the sick with kind regard,
Bore home a dreadful tribute of reward,
Home, where six children, yielding to its pow'r,
Gave hope and patience a most trying hour;
One at her breast still drew the living stream,
(No sense of danger mars an infant's dream,)
Yet ev'ry tongue exprest, and ev'ry eye,
'Whoe'er survives the shock, that child will die!'
But vain the fiat,—Heav'n restor'd them all,
And destin'd one of riper years to fall.
Midnight beheld the close of all his pain,
His grave was clos'd when midnight came again!
No bell was heard to toll, no funeral pray'r,
No kindred bow'd, no wife, no children there;
Its horrid nature could inspire a dread
That cut the bonds of custom like a thread,
The humble church-tow'r higher seem'd to show,
Illumin'd by their trembling light below;
The solemn night-breeze struck each shiv'ring cheek;
Religious reverence forbade to speak:
The starting Sexton his short sorrow chid
When the earth murmur'd on the coffin lid,
And falling bones and sighs of holy dread
Sounded a requiem to the silent dead!
"'Why tell us tales of woe, thou who didst give
'Thy soul to rural themes, and bade them live?
'What means this zeal of thine, this kindling fire?
'The rescu'd infant and the dying sire?'
Kind heart, who o'er the pictur'd Seasons glow'd,
Whose smiles have crown'd the verse, or tears have flow'd,
Was then the lowly minstrel dear to thee?
Himself appeals—What, if *that child* were HE!
What, if those midnight sighs a farewell gave,
While hands, all trembling, clos'd his father's grave!
Though love enjoin'd not infant eyes to weep,
In manhood's zenith shall his feelings sleep?
Sleep not my soul! indulge a nobler flame;
Still the destroyer persecutes thy name.

A poem of merit like the present must be grateful to mankind in general, but more particularly to him who is obliged, *with serious anguish and an aching head*, to peruse that load of poetic trash which is continually issuing from the press. This poem, however, is not exempt from some of those imperfections which appear in "The Farmer's Boy." The principal fault which would strike a fastidious critic is, that in some instances the author's simplicity degenerates into groveling prose, as in the following example:—

"Till every land shall bow the grateful knee,
Would it not be a glorious day to see?"

But such instances are very rare, and even these few are to be attributed to the peculiar circumstances under which the author acquired his extended knowledge of the language in which he writes. Many examples might also be found of a deficiency in correctness, but the genuine simplicity, sensibility, piety, and natural description that run through the poem prevent the mind from dwelling fastidiously upon faults. The language and sentiments of nature instantly strikes the heart and detains the soul in a pleasing enchantment. By these means alone, Mr. Bloomfield soars beyond many of his competitors, who with far superior knowledge, are not equally alive to the beauties of nature. His poems will be read and admired, when their works are forgotten, for in every age and in every climate mankind *must* be interested by *a Child of Nature*.

D.

Patriotism, or the Love of our Country; an Essay. Illustrated by Examples from Ancient and Modern History. By Wm. Frend, 8vo. *7s. Mawman.*

This is an essay on the principle of patriotism, illustrated by the most eminent examples ancient and modern. It is dedicated to the volunteers of Great Britain, for whose perusal the work seems to be more peculiarly intended. The author commences with a short history of man. Having considered his sensations from his childhood till he arrives at a mature age, he concludes that patriotism, or a love of our country, is the regular result of the order of nature. He then examines the question, whether or not patriotism be a phantom of the imagination, whether such a thing has ever existed; and whether, if it has it be beneficial or prejudicial; how far it is affected by human institutions, and in what manner it may be improved or diminished, so as to increase or diminish our own happiness, and that of our neighbours.

In the prosecution of this enquiry, the author rejects the dreams of false philosophy, and considers the human race in that point of view which is exhibited by the sacred scriptures. He follows the order of the Biblical history, and from this source produces a variety of the most striking instances of patriotism. The nature of the Hebrew institutions, and the situation in which the Israelites were placed, were peculiarly favourable to patriotic exertions. The country which they inhabited, was an inheritance long promised to their fathers, a spot which had been long appointed for them in particular, and which they therefore thought they could never relinquish without sacrilege. The idea of their former slavery would enhance the value of the freedom they enjoyed in the land of promise; and animate their efforts in the defence of their country against the various warlike nations by whom they were surrounded. Hence the sacred flame of patriotism glowed in the bosoms even of the women, as well as the men, and the effects of this spirit are exemplified by the author in the instances of *Deborah*, Sampson, Jonathan, David, and especially

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in Judas Maccabeus. He then turns to profane history, and many illustrious examples of patriotism are produced from the several states of ancient Greece. Codrus, who gave his life for his country, is particularly mentioned, together with Lycurgus, Solon, and the patriotic heroes of Thermopylæ. The nature of the Grecian institutions is here examined, and the causes of the decay of patriotism, and the introduction of corruption, explained. He then proceeds to the examination of the Roman history, and the effects that naturally resulted from the early institutions of the Romans. The instance of the elder Brutus, whose patriotism enabled him to put to death his own sons, who were found guilty of treason, is recorded with a variety of other examples equally noble and disinterested. The author considers the causes of the extinction of the patriotic spirit in Rome, and then proceeds to the history of modern Europe, from which he produces a great number of the most brilliant examples of genuine patriotism. Among the English, *Alfred* is principally mentioned, who was in an eminent degree a patriot King. The patriotism of the Swiss, in their resistance to the Austrian yoke; and of the Dutch, in their determined opposition to the tyranny of Spain, are justly celebrated. He next examines the causes why in some countries the spirit of patriotism appears to be totally extinguished, and gives a deplorable picture of the degradation of the inhabitants of Egypt and Hindostan. The author proceeds more particularly to consider the nature of patriotism, which he thinks is sometimes apt to degenerate into meanness, and a spirit of oppression towards individuals. He then explains how this quality is to be restrained, encouraged and directed. In order properly to call forth the powers of patriotism, the country ought to be worthy of being loved, and this is perhaps one reason why this quality is so little known in those countries which are groaning under the yoke of tyranny and oppression.

In order that the Spirit of Patriotism may flourish in a country, it is necessary that there should be no unnatural and invidious distinctions among the people, and that equality of rights should extend to all. The British empire is peculiarly calculated, in this respect, to produce splendid instances of patriotism. The author explains the wide difference between the peerage of Great Britain and the nobility of other countries. Here, they are distinguished by nothing else than a few privileges, and to these every person may, by his merit have access; so that patriotism glows equally in the breast of peer and peasant. The author next states various causes that may produce a decay of patriotism, and these causes may spring either from the rulers or from the people themselves. The former may destroy it by injustice, the latter by luxury and licentiousness. He then points out the manner in which the loss of patriotism may be avoided. Next follows a refutation of the objections made to the whole doctrine of patriotism, which is proved to be consistent with the christian religion; with genuine morality and the intentions of nature. The author then fixes the just limits of real patriotism, and points out the difference between the true and the false patriot. A description is here given of a false patriot minister, in which it is not difficult to perceive that the author had in view a certain gentleman high in office. This part of the subject is concluded with the praise of patriotism, which is said to be the highest quality that can adorn a rational being. The whole work is closed with an address to the volunteers, in which their patriotism and energy are highly commended, and plans pointed out for their training and exercise. A country defended in this manner by a patriotic and loyal people, the author regards as invincible.

Considering this as a mere ephemeral publication, it is worthy of some approbation, but it is too superficial to be lasting. There is even something ludicrous in the pomp with which this holiday production is ushered into the world; and the solemnity with which it dispatches subjects of the last importance in a few words. The style, too, savours strongly of affectation in many instances; and several controverted points are settled at once in so dogmatic a manner, that one is sometimes tempted to smile at the author's ignorance and self-conceit. He could not, in such narrow limits, enter on philosophical discussions; true; but why touch upon them at all? Why drag them in as it were, by the ears, when the object of the book might be attained as well, or rather better without them? But what is the object of the book? It must be to lay before the volunteers a short and very summary account of the most celebrated instances of patriotism. It could never be intended as a philosophical discussion. In the former case, the author may be excused for the introduction of matter foreign to the subject, on the score of vanity and the necessity of making the book of a reasonable size. In the latter case, this would be one of the most contemptible performances that ever issued from the press. Considering it then entirely as a mere ephemeral production, we heartily wish it all the success it merits, and hope that it will not wholly fail in producing those advantages which the author no doubt expected to result from it.

D.

Military Memoirs, relating to Campaigns, Battles and Stratagems of War, Antient and Modern; Extracted from the best Authorities with Original Remarks. By the Author of Memoirs of the War in Asia, from 1778 *to* 1784. *London* 1804. *8vo.* 10*s.* 6*d. Johnson.*

A military history, such as should give a distinct idea of how the most memorable battles of ancient and modern times were lost and won, would be a most valuable acquisition to every person who has chosen the army for his profession. It is by such knowledge alone, that he can ever become worthy of command, however high in rank he may be raised by accident or length of service. To turn over the numerous volumes of history, where such information lies scattered, must however often be altogether impossible for him, amidst the continual motion and bustle which generally attend a military life. It was on this account, from a conviction of the utility of the plan, that we took up the volume before us with a particular degree of favour, and began to read almost

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with the resolution of being pleased. Of the abilities of Dr. Thomson, who in the dedication acknowledges himself the author, the world has already had many specimens. The extent of his information and talents left us no room to doubt that he was a person very well qualified to execute such a work; and the judicious manner in which the plan is set forth in the preface, gave a presage of a book well worthy of the perusal.

We had not, however, proceeded far, before we found occasion to halt, and ponder on the manner in which talents are in the present age applied. As soon as an author has by some well-written or popular book recommended himself to public notice, he acquires *a name*. This acquisition he immediately begins, with becoming prudence, to turn to the best account. He knows that thenceforward little or no enquiry will be made into the intrinsic value of any new performance, and that it is not by the merit of the work, but by the name he has already acquired, that the bookseller will regulate his price. He therefore wisely reflects that it is very foolish for a man to compose with great care and toil, when his productions will bring him quite as much money without all this unnecessary trouble. As it is his name he sells, and the accompanying work is only reckoned a necessary appendage, he soon discovers that it must be a matter of great indifference to the bookseller, whether this appendage be written by himself or by any other person; and that if he gets £300 for a volume which he can procure another to write for half that sum, he will be enabled to pocket £.150 of clear gain. Sometimes a bookseller, when he has got a work on his hands, which he does not know how to persuade the world to read, procures some man of note to *father it*, as it is called, for a valuable consideration.

Every one may perceive from such transactions, which every day take place among literary speculators, to what good account *a name* may be turned. It must indeed be acknowledged that these treasures do not always prove inexhaustible; and that by thus disposing of the goose limb by limb, the golden eggs must in time cease to be laid. Many authors, whose name had once attained a very considerable elevation, have contrived in a few years to bring it quite as low as the point from which it started. They continue to sell as long as the bookseller will buy; and he of course will buy just as long as the public will believe a book is worth reading, because a certain name is found on the title-page. The many, however, become at last weary of digesting crude trash; and begin to conclude that their opinion of the author's early performances must have been wrong, and that he is upon the whole but a very dull and insipid fellow. The value of *the name* is now at an end: the public don't regard it, and the bookseller won't buy it: and thus the author, having become the assassin of his own reputation, is consigned in his old age to poverty and neglect.

Such is the use which we lament is so often made of talents and reputation. We do not mean to apply what has been said to any particular author: the public have abundance of examples before them.

The *Military Memoirs* come to us under the name of Dr. Thomson. The utility of the plan we have already allowed: its execution comes now to be considered. The work consists professedly of extracts from the best authors who have written on military affairs, interspersed with observations by the author. It is divided into three parts; War, before the invention of gun-powder; War, after the invention of gun-powder; War, since the introduction of the Prussian tactics. This last change in the art of war the author thinks sufficiently important to form the third great era in tactics. Whether this opinion be well-founded or not, we are certainly obliged to the author for adding one more land-mark in the course of nearly 600 pages. It may seem strange in this age when tables of Contents, indexes, and sub-divisions of all sorts are so plentiful, that none of these aids to the memory occur in a book which seems so much to require them, from its being made up of such a variety of unconnected histories. With the exception of the three great divisions already mentioned, there is not a single subdivision in the work, and the different histories are merely separated by a dash. As there is also neither index nor table of contents, there is no finding any fact, whose place may have escaped the memory, without reading the volume over again. One should have thought such a book was intended for the perusal of some logician, whose ideas were linked together by a huge unbroken chain, instead of a soldier whose bustling life often will not allow him to read twenty pages without interruption. We should not have remarked so particularly on this point, were it not that such neglect, when combined with other similar circumstances, looks too much like the impatience of an author posting to the end of a performance written for a particular price: if the publisher does not miss the appendages, what need the author care?

The observations on particular battles, and particular changes in the art of war, are often evidently the production of a mind replete with various information. But their effect is lost by the total want of arrangement. We *wade* through battles, stratagems, remarks, and deductions; but our recollection can as little assist us in forming any idea of the mass through which we have made our way, as our judgement can in regard to what is to be expected in the sequel. The battle of Thymbrium, between Cyrus and Crœsus, introduces a discussion on the antiquity of war chariots: but unfortunately for the chain of thought, a long extract from the Hindoo Institutes breaks in upon us, because Dr. T. is certain "the reader will not be displeased with it." The extract is indeed sufficiently entertaining, if it were found in its proper place; but while perusing it, the reader is quite thrown out of the war chariots; and at the conclusion, it is some time before his memory can again get mounted. There is indeed in almost every part such a bustle and confusion, that we are apt to imagine the author intends to exhibit in his work the picture of a modern battle, where all is fire, smoke, fighting, flying, and uproar, and no living soul can tell all the while what is going forward.

In making his selection, Dr. T. has usually made a judicious choice of authorities. He very properly prefers Polybius who understood what a battle was, to Livy who only imagined what it might be. His *great*

authorities in modern times are indeed such as must sometimes tempt us to smile; he however modestly apologizes for reckoning among them his own portion of Dodsley's Annual Register.

The account of the King of Prussia's campaigns is the most full and satisfactory: that of the last war with France the most superficial. Yet surely it is in the campaigns which France has carried on with so much success against all Europe, and against all probability, that the most useful lessons for the present generation were to be found. To develope the causes which produced the disaster of the British armies, would have been an instructive labour both for the soldier and the politician of this country. But we forget—the book is dedicated to His R. H. the Duke of York.

The style is throughout the most slovenly and ill-digested we remember to have read. It is often impossible to decypher the meaning, owing to the carelessness of the expression. Speaking of the battle of Arcola between the French and Austrians, the author says, "Valour and skill were conspicuously displayed on each side, but the genius of Bonaparte prevailed at last, of which, at the first onset, there was every reason to doubt." Was it the genius of Bonaparte, or the success of the battle that was at first doubtful?—Such instances of negligence occur every where, and innumerable errors of the press are interspersed to put the sagacity and patience of the reader to an additional trial.

But it is not only with negligence that the style of this performance is chargeable. There is also an affectation of using words of established meaning in a new sense. This is the most perverse species of affectation which can enter into the mind of a writer, as it tends to confound language and render it incapable of distinctly expressing our ideas. *Entrenchment* and *to entrench* are exclusively devoted to a particular meaning, and convey one of the most distinct and definite ideas that language presents. No one is in the least puzzled to know what is meant by an army *entrenching* itself, or by storming the *entrenchments* of an enemy's camp. Yet Dr. T. chuses to distinguish himself by introducing *re*-trenchment and *re*-trench, as substitutes for the above words; although these substitutes are already appropriated by universal consent to a very different signification. What plain Englishman would not be apt to imagine when he heard of an army "*re*trenching itself with great care," that it had gone upon short allowance as a necessary precaution? To introduce new words where a language is deficient may often be allowable; but to confound words of an established meaning, merely through the wantonness of affected singularity, deserves to be held up to ridicule and contempt, or if possible, a more severe censure. There is one instance indeed of this innovation in language, which occurs more than once, and yet is almost too laughable to be censured with asperity. All the world have long been agreed about what a man's *arm* is; and it has been customary to use the plural of this word, *arms*, to denote the weapons employed in warfare. Dr. Johnson accordingly makes an *arm* what every other person makes it; and he places entirely separate from it, *arms* denoting weapons, as a word without a singular. Dr. T. however, is determined that *arms* denoting weapons shall have a singular; and that not only when a single weapon, but when a single species of weapon is meant. In speaking of the flying-artillery of the French, he tells us—"this *arm* was peculiarly suited to continental countries." Should this usage be followed by our historians, we must give our readers timely warning not to mistake the meaning of the new phraseology: they must not suppose when they hear of one army using one *arm* and another another, that the battle was nothing more than a boxing-match, and that the troops were composed of right and left-handed men. We consider it as fortunate for the credit of our volunteers, that Dr. T. holds no commission in the Kensington corps; for on his introducing the new word of command, *shoulder your arm*, a scene might have been produced, sufficient to overpower the gravity of the most patriotic. Ω.

List of New Publications from May 16, to June 1, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.

HISTORY, TRAVELS, &c.

A Compendious View of Universal History, from the year 1753 to the Treaty of Amiens in 1802; With Notes to Verify and Illustrate the passages to which they refer. By Charles Mayo, L.L.B. 4 vols. royal 4to. (*) 6*l.* 6*s.*

A Family Tour through the British Empire; adapted to the Amusement and Instruction of Youth. By Priscilla Wakefield, 12mo. 5*s.*

The writer of this book would perhaps confess that it is extremely superficial, because it was not intended to be otherwise. But looking upon it in the most favourable point of view, the subject cannot be said to be treated in a manner likely to prove of much service to those for whose use it is intended. A dry detail of trifles is as little calculated to make a lasting impression upon the minds of youth as upon those of maturer age. Still a work of this kind, unless positively injurious, must be of some use, and may compensate for the time spent in reading it, when a better cannot be procured.

POLITICS.

Brief Remarks on the Mahratta War, and on the Rise and Progress of the French Establishment in Hindostan under Generals de Boigne and Perron. (*) 1*s.*

A Concise View of the Present State of the Question, regarding the Abolition of the Slave Trade announced for Discussion in Parliament. 2*s.*

The author of this pamphlet considers this interesting question under three points of view. He first treats of the method of procuring negroes in Africa, and endeavours to prove that this brutal traffic renders almost the whole of this quarter of the globe a scene of tumult, pillage, fraud, kidnapping, robbery, and perpetual wars. The second point to which he adverts is the treatment of the slaves during the passage, which from authentic documents he proves has been the most horrid that can well be conceived till better regulations were introduced by Mr. Wilberforce's bill for the regulation of the Slave ships. The third point is the situation of the slaves in the West Indies, and here the author proves in the clearest manner that the

condition of the negroes there, is totally different from any other species of human servitude that ever existed. But the great object of the pamphlet appears to be to answer the arguments of the defenders of the Slave Trade, and here he considers the question first as it relates to Africa; 2dly, as it relates to the interests of those whose capital is employed in it; and 3dly, as it relates to the interests of the West Indian colonies. The design of the arguments under these different heads is to prove, that this traffic is no less prejudicial to good policy than revolting to humanity. The authorities quoted are those who have strenuously defended the Slave Trade in order to remove all idea of partiality in treating the question. The author carefully distinguishes the two questions of abolishing the traffic, and emancipating the Slaves already in the colonies. This is the closest and at the same time the most comprehensive view of the question relative to the Slave Trade that has yet appeared. It is treated with the ability of a well-informed politician and philosopher, and the pamphlet is well worthy the perusal of every one who wishes to attend to the subject of the Slave Trade. It is understood to be the composition of Mr. Brougham, author of the *Colonial Policy*.

Thoughts on the formation of the Late and Present Administrations. By Lord Archibald Hamilton. (*) 2*s.* 6*d.*

An Answer to Mr. Pitt's Attack upon Earl St. Vincent and the Admiralty, in his Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Naval Defence of the Country, on the 15th March, 1804. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The questions in this pamphlet are frequently stated with some degree of partiality as generally happens when the object is to defend one side. This appears chiefly in the comparative statements between our naval strength during the late and the present war. The pamphlet is, however, evidently written by a person well acquainted with the subject, and some peculiarity in the style justifies the presumption that the writer is a seaman. The plan of the Earl of St. Vincent to have all the first-rates built in the King's dock-yards, instead of procuring them by contract is here defended, and the arguments adduced in its favour must to every one appear convincing. No one can for a moment doubt that these vessels ought if possible to be built by surer hands than those of contractors. But still there is another consideration behind. Though the propriety of many of the Earl of St. Vincent's plans of improvement is evident, the manner and time of putting them in execution might be objectionable. Upon this question, however, the author does not touch, but the pamphlet is certainly well worthy of attentive perusal.

A Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt, on his late Ministerial Arrangements. By Timothy Plain. 1*s.* 6*d.*

The object of this letter appears to be to point out the inconsistency and selfishness of Mr. Pitt's conduct in the formation of the present administration. The subject is treated with considerable spirit, and the sentiments of the writer are in general well expressed.

A Refutation of the Libel published against the Memory of the Late King of France, by Helen Maria Williams, under the title of Political and Confidential Correspondence of Louis the Sixteenth; with Observations on each Letter. By A. F. Bertrand de Moleville. Translated by R. C. Dallas, Esq 2*s.* 6*d.*

This refutation proves that the author is warmly interested in preventing the memory of his King from being insulted by unjust accusations, but here he has certainly displayed more zeal than discretion. The object was to prove that the letters published by Miss Helen Maria Williams were not genuine, or if genuine to refute the inference which she has drawn from them and prove her comments to be ill founded. But the author for the most part chuses to treat Helen Maria in her own style, and answers her railings by railing in return. It may be true, as he says, that the poor woman's brain has been turned by her revolutionary fury. But this is not to the purpose. He does indeed endeavour to prove that several of the letters are not genuine, and that the date of one which he admits to be genuine has been altered, and that this alteration has formed the only grounds of Helen Maria's attack upon the King. But the evidence is only presumptive; we have no direct proof, and here the answer is deficient. As to the comments of this revolutionary lady, he has certainly answered them as she answered some parts of his annals. Both have bespattered each other without mercy, and both are violent partizans, so that it is not easy to say, how far either are worthy of much credit. The zeal of the minister is however more amiable than that of Helen Maria, though her politics are those of the *heart* and not of the *head*, as she herself observes in one of her letters;—a wise lady!

THEOLOGY.

Christian Theology; or an Inquiry into the Nature and General Character of Revelation. By the Rev. Richard Lloyd, A.M. 8vo. (*) 8*s.*

A Discourse delivered at Hackney, on occasion of the Death of Dr. Priestley. To which is added, A Brief Memoir of the Doctor's Life and Writings; and a Letter from his Son, containing the Particulars of his last Sickness. By Thomas Belsham. 2*s.*

The principal feature in this sermon is the character of Doctor Priestley and his works. The author, as might be expected, is very extravagant in the praise of both. Doctor Priestley's intentions might be good, but his theological works have certainly been productive of very little benefit to society. As a man of science, his fame is justly established; but the obstinacy of his disposition here shewed itself, for he persevered in a favourite opinion in spite of evidence amounting nearly to demonstration. His church history, which the author praises for impartiality and candour, is perhaps the most stubborn opposition to facts established upon the clearest testimony that ever was written to serve a party. The sermon is written with some spirit and force, but strongly tinctured with the opinions of the author's sect. His sentiments respecting Dr. Priestley's theological writings will of course be received *cum nota*.

Sermons, by the Rev. Dr. Martin, Monimail, Fifeshire. 8vo. 7*s.* 6*d.*

These sermons were chiefly intended to celebrate the virtues of the late Earl and Countess of Leven and Melville. The author seems to have had this object much at heart, for Leven-house was remarkably hospitable. But ah, poor Gil Perez, though something brilliant was intended, the discourses are the most tame, dull, and insipid, that can well be conceived. The author indeed seems to be incapable of writing any thing worthy of being given to the public; but as Parson Hugh said of Slender, "his meaning is good."

A Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Cranbrook, in Kent, on Wednesday the 19th of October, 1803. By the Rev. D. W. Davies, B.A 1*s.*

The object of this sermon is to excite the people to prepare to resist invasion, in case it should be attempted. The arguments used for this purpose, though urged before in a thousand different shapes, are still good arguments. When, however, a new publication appears on an old subject, it is reasonable to expect that it will at least be set in a new light.

Whoever reads this sermon with any such expectation, will be disappointed.

The Providence of God; a Norrisian Prize Essay. By James George Durham, A.B. 2s.

The doctrine of an over-ruling providence is here defended in a methodical and perspicuous manner, by arguments drawn from reason, scripture and experience. Were the Greek and Latin exploded, as also *two* Hebrew words, introduced no doubt with a view to prove that the author was acquainted with that language, the essay would be a good sermon for a country congregation, to which method and plainness would certainly be a great recommendation. One would expect something more from a prize essay. But here there is nothing new, striking, or ingenious, and the style is in general far from pure, and often antiquated. Why then was such a trifle published? No doubt because it gained the prize. The reason may be good, but, if this gained the prize, in the name of wonder what sort of things must those have been which came into competition with it, and failed?

SCIENCE, MEDICINE, &c.

Gramina Britannica; or, Representations of the British Grasses: with Remarks, and Occasional Descriptions. By F. L. Knapp, Esq. F.L.S. &c. Illustrated with coloured Plates. royal 4to. boards. (*) 8l. 8s.

Medical Sketches of the Expedition to Egypt, from India. By James M'Gregor, A.M. (See page 658.) 7s.

Observations on the Disease called the Plague, the Dysentery, the Ophthalmy of Egypt, and on the means of Prevention; by P. Assalini, M.D. Translated from the French. By Adam Neale, 12mo. (*) 4s.

An Essay on Respiration. Parts I. and II. By John Bostock, M.D. 8vo. 6s.

An Improved Method of treating Strictures in the Urethra, 8vo. 5s.

POETRY.

The Grampians Desolate: a Poem. By Alexander Campbell. 8vo. (*) 10s. 6d.

Poems on Various Subjects. By Mrs. Grant, 8vo. (*) 10s. 6d.

Tales and Poems. By A. Kendall, 12mo. 3s. 6d.

The poems in this collection are very indifferent. One of them was written, as the authoress informs us, while her infant was declared past hopes of recovery. It is however impossible not to think that a mother of tolerable feeling might in such a situation have something else to think of, than writing scraps of poetry. The prose stories are possessed of some interest, but the whole ranks rather below mediocrity.

The Recal of Momus: a Bagatelle. By Benjamin Thompson, Esq. 4to. 4s. 6d.

The story of this piece is a mythological fable, in which Momus on his recal to Olympus, is supposed to have amused the gods by a recital in verse, of some of those tales with which Mr. Thomas Dibdin has so much amused the world in prose. The verse is not bad, and the tales are not bad; yet the humour of the latter is far from being heightened by their union with the former. The author promises us a hearty laugh; but we had unfortunately already enjoyed this with these tales in short prose; which is perhaps the cause that meeting with them metamorphosed into long-winded verse only procured us a hearty yawn.

NOVELS.

The Life of a Lover, in a Series of Letters. By Sophia Lee, 6 vols. cr. 8vo. (*) 1l. 16s.

The First Night of my Wedding. Translated from the French of Pigault Lebrun. 2 vols. 12mo. 7s.

This novel is sufficiently amusing, rather from the author's manner of writing, than from any thing in the work itself, which is a trifle in comparison with some former publications of the same writer. Every adventure, whether tragic or comic is treated in the same light and humourous manner, and even the most sacred things are handled with that want of delicacy and respect, which distinguishes too many of the French authors.

Modern Faults. By Mrs. Anne Ker. 2 vols. 12mo. 7s.

This is a sorry tame story. There is nothing like originality or acuteness of thought or expression. A rakish husband leaves his wife, and lives with another woman, till being duly convinced of his fault, he returns to his duty; and this, told in a heavy, dull manner, is the whole of the affair. But perhaps the authoress may answer nearly in the words of the razor seller to the bumpkin, "my book was not written to *amuse*, but to *sell*."

Baron De Fleming; or, The Rage of Nobility. 3 vols. 12mo. 12s.

Baron de Fleming the Son; or, The Rage of Systems. By Aug. La Fontaine. 3 vols. 12mo. 12s.

These two novels exhibit in a striking and amusing light, the force of prejudice and system. The father is a good man, but perfectly devoured by the rage of nobility, and his chief delight is to study the antiquity of his family, and declaim upon his genealogy on all occasions. The son is carried away by the rage of system. From the colour of the hair, and from the appearance of the countenance, he divides mankind into four classes, of which the Celtic is the most perfect. His indefatigable search for perfect Celts, exposes him in a variety of ludicrous situations. Upon the whole the characters are well supported, and the satire is good in both works. The latter, whether the author intended it or not, forms a good burlesque upon the theory of Dr. Gall, whose eccentric opinions are making so much noise on the continent.

MISCELLANIES.

An Introduction to the Knowledge of Rare and Valuable Editions of the Greek and Latin Classics. By T. Dibdin, A.B. 8vo. (*) 12s.

Letters written by the late Earl of Chatham, to his Nephew, Thomas Pitt (afterwards Lord Camelford,) then at Cambridge. cr. 8vo. (*) 6s.

Original Correspondence of Jean Jaques Rousseau with Madame Latour de Tranqueville and M. Du Peyron, the friend to whom he bequeathed his Manuscripts relating to his Quarrel with David Hume, &c. &c. &c. 2 vols. 8vo. (*) 12s.

Comic Sketches; or, The Comedian his own Manager; written and selected for the benefit of Performers in England, Ireland, Scotland and America. By Charles Lee Lewis, 12mo. 4s.

This little volume contains a great deal of amusing matter, and may be properly characterized by the appellation of a '*droll*' performance, such as might be expected from such an '*odd fish*' as the author. The Satire is keen, almost always entertaining, and perfectly free from ill-nature. These sketches will be very valuable to him whose chief object in reading is amusement.

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A Narrative of Events that have lately taken place in Ireland among the Society called Quakers; with Corresponding Documents and Occasional Observations. 8vo. 5*s.* 6*d.*

This is a narrative of disputes about points of faith and discipline that have taken place among the *friends* in Ireland who begin to find that their creed is not yet entirely settled. *The infallible guide within* points out to one the right way, but another *infallible guide* shews clearly to another, that the former *infallible guide* knows nothing about the matter. Such dissensions, it must be confessed, are not very consistent with that spirit of peace for which the *friends* wish to be thought remarkable. The narrative is certainly curious, and may become an important document, should these dissensions lead to any extraordinary change in the sentiments and habits of the people called Quakers.

A Narrative of the Proceedings in America, of the Society called Quakers, in the case of Hannah Barnard, 8vo. 4*s.*

It would appear from this pamphlet that discord cannot altogether be banished from the society of *friends*. Hannah Barnard, the proceedings relative to whose case compose the following narrative, was a minister among the Quakers of America. *The Spirit moved her* to consider those parts of scripture as interpolations, by which the Jews are said to have received the *commands* of the Divinity to make war upon the Canaanites. For this, after numberless meetings, conferences and disputes, she was dismissed from the society of *friends*. Verily, the friends ought to be circumspect, for the spirit of dissention and lies seemeth to have got amongst them, and threateneth to stir and buffet them without mercy.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The Classic.—N° IV.

——— *Veteres Avias tibi de Pulmone revello.* Pers.

An Attack has been made on Crinitus by Dr. Noehden; (see our last Number) which those who are eager to develope not merely the dulness of German Commentators *in the gross*, but their unfairness in the art of book-making in *particular instances*, will no doubt expect to see answered.—Crinitus will by no means acquiesce in the judgement which the Dr. has been pleased to decide as his meed.

I am aware that under a feigned signature, it would be cowardly to reply to general invective, urged by a gentleman, no doubt, of great learning, who has openly signed his name to his opinions.—I trust also that another motive would induce me to consider myself not in the least injured by his remarks, or justified in retorting some phrases, whereby Crinitus is represented, by an ingenious collection of words supplied from *the Classic*, as a *would be* scholar. We must allow the

——— nec lex est justior ulla
Quàm necis artifices arte perire suâ.

And therefore, by an easy prolepsis, Crinitus may suffer for the pains he intends to inflict on Hemsterhuis and Bentley *at the place of execution*.

To this elegant metaphor, wherein Crinitus is represented as a hangman, and the two Commentators as condemned criminals, he has only to object, that every mention he has made in print of Dr. Bentley has been reverential; though he cannot but admire the ingenuity with which Hemsterhuis is coupled to our illustrious English critic.

I now hope I may be allowed to defend myself in the first person: and though I may seem to Dr. Noehden "*garrulous and impertinent*," "*petulant*," "*illiberal*," may be thought to use "*massive epithets*," to "*shew a reprehensible ignorance*," &c. &c.—yet, I have still hopes that by a calm and dispassionate answer to the Dr.'s insinuations, I may vindicate the general assertions which I have any where ventured to make in the few published numbers of an undigested paper, the trifling offspring of some leisure moments, which I had conceived might be harmlessly spent in the prosecution of truth, in subjects where it seldom encounters an examination.

And, in the first place, I do not think that the authoritative tone even of a* "*vir humanissimus*," "*a Member of the Seminarium Philologicum*," ought to prescribe, to those whom *He* may opine *his* Inferiors, *his* rules of Thinking and Writing.—In the university of Gottingen, under Mr. Heyne's instructions, I *might* have learned this obedience to the dictates of a master; but Dr. Noehden will excuse *me* if I inform *him* that I shall continue, on the same subjects, in the same method, to offer my Remarks to his Criticism, until my Publisher informs me that they are become a drug unworthy of his excellent Journal, and superseded by the *solidity* of the German school.

A few common place remarks in "the Dr.'s expostulation" concerning the benefits which some commentators have conferred on the literary world, and some foibles they must be allowed with the common mass of mankind to have indulged in, as I was never disposed to deny, so I shall not answer. I hasten to the most formidable attack, where I doubtless appear most vulnerable.

"*The particular allegations of Crinitus, if submitted to an accurate analysis, would not stand the scrutiny of examination.*" This is no doubt the *opinion* of Dr. Noehden.—I shall not however be blamed, I suppose, for preserving a silence on points *collectively* urged against my Essay, till my antagonist gives me some clue by which I may discover and judge them, when I promise him I will be as ready as at present with my Vindication.

If I thought that Dr. Noehden would give me credit for Veracity, (which I much fear, from the tenor of some of his phrases, he does not,) I would more at length inform him, and he would surely be surprized at the information, that my notices concerning Heyne came originally *from himself*.—*How* and *where* is not a part of the present question.—I merely state the fact, with a solemn assertion of its truth. And from this I think I may assert also, that there is scarcely a seeming difference in my account of Heyne as far as the co-operation of his pupils is concerned.—Let the reader weigh the paragraph of Dr. N. with the quotation he has extracted from my essay, and he will find that even the circumstance of the formation of Heyne's Excursus to the Nimia (for I shall take the liberty to use the term in the singular number) if not strictly *in that single instance* fact, is at least a very venial *misapprehension*, calculated to serve no purpose

* Heyne Prolegomena passim.

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of petulance from *misrepresentation*, since it originated from a knowledge of the advantages which the Professor gained from his Seminarium Philologicum, and by no means deserved the triumphant contradiction it has met with from the Dr. I have a great and sound respect for Heynè,† as a commentator who has often informed, and rarely disgusted me; although, as a citizen of the republic of letters, I much condemn and despise his degrading classical lore to serve the objects of his bookseller; of this more hereafter, when I prove to Dr. *N.* that I *have* read the Professor's preface.

And now I think it time to remark an inconsistency in Dr. Noehden's account of Heynè and his *Hanoverian Exhibitioners*, which, had it been inserted by me, would, I fear, have met with no mercy at his hands The Dr. rejects with disdain the idea, that Heynè should have commissioned his pupils to exert themselves in the more arduous aids to his work. And perhaps his late paper proves the justice of the Professor's system. His words are, on this subject (*i. e.* in disproving the execution of any comment of consequence by the Seminarium Philologicum) "That the fellows" of that institution "are employed by him *in various occupations, calculated to promote the object of their studies:* and occasionally he avails himself of their industry in executing some *subordinate offices* belonging to him as an Editor. The work that he generally delegates to them, is: *the making of indices*, &c. *and correcting the press.* So, the drudgery of making an index, and the servility of correcting the press, are calculated to promote the object of these young gentlemen's studies!! Gentle reader, when these are the occupations, as described by a fellow-labourer, of the German youth, may I not appeal to your indulgence in all I have said concerning German Commentators?

Let us now unravel Dr. Noehden's meaning on the other side of the question.—An Excursus (*i. e.* a patchwork of quotations and hackneyed opinions, dilated, and sometimes decently arranged) is a work beyond the ability or trust of Mr. Heynè's pupils.—They *execute subordinate offices*—and yet one pupil *rectifies* a *Latin Version* of PINDAR.—It follows then, that *correcting* the press, and making an index, are works destined to promote literature, and that "*rectifying a Version of Pindar.*"‡ is a *subordinate office!!!* Non tali auxilio, nec defensoribus istis, &c. &c.

Veniamus ad splendida. When Dr. Noehden talks of "a master book-maker surrounded by journeymen and apprentices," he represents the very fact, as he allows it to be, with equal truth and humour. Let us pursue this witty allegory.—Mr. Heynè cuts out§ the work, but it is very unfashionable, of a bad texture, second-cloth, with which he trusts his apprentices: he himself is an adept at the dashing suit, the turn of the collar, the stuffing the shoulders.

† The index to Virgil could not have been superintended by Heynè—vide *Somnum imire.* Index.

‡ As the world may perhaps not have heard of this young gentleman, I think it would be unfair to withhold his name. "*Koppius, ornatissimus Juvenis.* Præf. ad Pind. ed prima. Is not this ridiculous, "*Voces juvenum aliquot ornatissimorum, qui identidem me rogaverunt ut Lyrici Poetæ gustum darem. Dimoveram eorum preces, &c. &c.*"

§ By "*cutting out,*" I suppose Dr. N. intended to make the professor resemble a taylor, in his allegory.

I will descend from this height of description; and merely suggest that the young apprentice employed *to tack on* Digammas has woefully betrayed his trust in a few instances.—That the index-maker *struck work*, and ran off before the conclusion of the eighth volume. That the young botcher who luckily hit on *stitching* the Alexandrian Grammarians to an otherwise ponderous load of notes, deserved the honours of the shop-board—and that the hands employed abroad to *cabbage* different MSS. were generally unsuccessful.* I aver that I *have* read Heynè's Preface to Homer—and must beg Dr. Noehden to excuse me from the pain of a second perusal. It contains LI Pages, XXXIV Sections, and the Prolegomena, Subsidia, &c. (which may most fairly be added) contain CXVIII Pages. I therefore still pronounce it a *massive* performance, almost totally irrelevant to subjects of literature connected with Homer.—The whole stuff which regards the Bookseller's, and the Professor's jobs, I still call *petulant.*—When will some patrons arise in Germany to snatch unhappy editors from the gripe of those harpies? They have absolutely made Mr. Heynè ridiculous, by his confession that *they* imposed the work—a work, to dilate into eight enormously extensive octavo volumes, the Iliad, which, as we have read, was once contained in a nut-shell.†

I recommended in my last number the "Testimonia Sui." Dr. Noehden has given me an excellent opportunity for a collateral exemplification of my purpose.—He refers me to sundry passages, *wherein he is mentioned*, with superlative epithets, or gentle lauds; I wish I could as easily gratify the egotism of every living author, as I can that of the Doctor. These should be placed after the vignette to his "*Commentatio de Porphyrii Scholiis in Homerum*"—an edifying, but not very entertaining treatise—a tolerable specimen of the German school.

"Amantissimus Ge. Henr. Nöhden Etonæ agens, a. xciv." Præf. 17.

Here begins the literary career of a member of the *Seminarium Philologicum*—at Eton Dr. Nöhden very kindly offered his assistance in collating a fragment contained in the library of that place.—"Amantissimus" is a most encouraging term; but it will be surpassed in the 19th page.

"Doctissimus Nöhden"—On this I need not enlarge, but shall refer my reader to that gentleman's attack for the comment.

"*Egregiè disputata sunt a doctissimo viro G. H. Nöhden.*"

The professor had not a clear second sight if he prophetically applied the above words to the above attack. Prol. p. 63.

In the 65th page, there are frequent mentions made of the Dr.'s treatise—alterius sic

Altera pos cit opem res—

There might surely have been room for the "*laudata Dissertatio*" in one of the eight volumes.

* I admire the following extract from the Edinburgh Review. July, 1803. p. 311. "We will not endeavour to rescue from oblivion the names *of those unhappy persons* by whom the most laborious part of the work was executed. We regret that one of these *subaltern artists* was not employed at the conclusion of the work, in preparing an Index.

† Vide Heynii Præf. S. 3.

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"*Vir doct. Nöhden.*" This is what I call, *a gentle laud*—Quere? should the termination be *us*, or *issimus?* we are here informed (which is somewhat of tautology) that he is "*nunc in Britannis degens inter virorum doctorum studia.*" p. 91. then *V. C. Nöehden*, p. 100.

More and more abbreviation "*V. A. G. Henr. Nochden*" p. 100.

"*Nöhedönius meus,*" p. 102. German is a hard language to latinize.

"*Ab humanissimo Nöehden,*" 106. "*by the polite Dr. Nöehden.*"

"*Ejusdem viri industriæ et amicitiæ debeo.*" p. 110.

I hope Dr. Noehden will admire with complacency these "Testimonia Sui" as he wished "to support his pretension, and to refer the Reader to the edition of Homer."—I have saved the Reader this trouble, who, from the literary biography of my antagonist, suggested by himself, cannot doubt, that the Dr. is on terms of the strictest intercourse with Heynè; who, though at present in his dotage, and in his better days only a man of Labour, and not of Taste, deserves, perhaps more than any modern German commentator, the united praise of all English and Hanoverian Tryphones.

My paper, I fear, is tedious—I must bring it to a close, neither requesting nor deprecating the Dr.'s farther chastisement. I hope, however, he will at least attack me with better temper next time, lest the world should not be inclined to accede to Heynè's definition of "*vir humanissimus,*" "*a polished gentleman.*"

The pathetic remarks on Brunck are too ridiculous for a serious defence, on my part, of my unhappy phrase "*a bankrupt commentator*"—suffice it to say at present, that Brunck is *peevish, abusive, headstrong,* and *unfair,* and I unfortunately do not agree with Dr. Noehden in thinking that he deserves well of the literary world.

Lest, however, I should seem to confine myself to generals, and to avoid the direct encounter on the merits of Brunck. I shall make that "*vegetus jucundissimusque senex*"* the subject of a future number, dismissing, however, the mention of my antagonist, to whom I fervently wish every success in the prosecution of his laborious and meritorious studies.

Reply to S. *on a Passage in Petronius.* (*See p.* 168.)

Mr. Editor,

I readily agree with your Correspondent S. in Number 41, concerning a passage in Petronius, that the conjectural correctors of the text have had bad success in their attempts to explain it; but I am also compelled to include S. himself among the number of unfortunate commentators; for the original text without any alterations, offers us a more connected and consistent sense, although involved indeed in some obscurity, by means of the constrained and affected modes of expression: nevertheless, we may still discover the shadow, at least, of a coherent meaning, which the correctors of the text have not preserved, as we shall perceive by the subjoined illustrations.

That in the first six lines the writer sends a student for his instruction, to Greek poetry, philosophy and oratory is agreed by all, but I think that S. loses part of the force of what is said, by adopting the conjectural reading of *mutet habenas liber* instead of the original text of *mittat habenas*; i. e. *remittat, laxat habenas,* "let him give a loose to the reins," as is confirmed by the sense of the subsequent word, *liber.* Hence the author makes a transition to the study of Latin literature in general. *Hunc romana manus circumfluat:* the original *hunc* is better than the conjectural *hinc,* and the whole phrase expresses the same as if we were to say, "when a student has thus laid a good foundation in Greek authors, let the pens of all the Roman writers surround him" and then "sometimes let him translate Greek authors, and sometimes imitate Latin ones."

Et *modo* graio
Exonerata sono mutet suffusa saporem;
Interdum subducta foro det pagina cursum,
Et fortuna sonet celeri distincta meatu.

These are the most difficult lines, but the sense has been better guessed before by other commentators than by S. Those indeed, who substitute *oraque graio,* he rightly reproves, yet does not himself make any proper use of the opposition between *modo* and *interdum*; i. e. "*Sometimes* let him translate, and thus by unburthening the sense from Greek phrases, let him change the flavor by supplying correspondent Latin ones." *Graio sono* means *Greek language,* not, as S. supposes, *full pronunciation*: thus Martial says, Sonasque grandibus minare verbis; and possibly *sono* may be also here emphatical as in Martial, meaning to express the *vehement force* of the words in Demosthenes. But beside *translation,* let him *sometimes imitate* Latin speakers, "i. e. Sometimes let his written page, carried off by him by memory from the orators in the forum, give a free course to his own original conceptions, *det pagina cursum.* Pagina is such a neutral word of itself, that it may mean a comic page, or a tragic page, or an oratorical page; its sense, therefore must in every case be determined by the context, and here it must mean an *oratorical page,* notwithstanding that, in the passage referred to by S. it means a *comic page.* Now comes the most difficult line of any, *Et fortuna sonet celeri distincta meatu.* I do not perceive, that any commentator has discovered the true meaning of this line any more than S. himself. Now it must be observed, that the preceding line related only to the oratorical conceptions and arguments, but this relates to the language in which they are to be delivered, so that the original text requires no alteration; it means "and good fortune will teach proper language, differing possibly from that brought by memory from the forum in some slight and nice variations;" "that is, let him imitate what he heard pronounced, and trust to himself to make such variations in the language, as shall rather improve it. This is much the same as what Horace said in plainer words, Nec verbum verbo curabis reddere fidus interpres; for as by *graio sono* before, he meant *Greek words,* so now by *Fortuna sonet verba,* he means, "Good fortune may select more fit Latin words, than by scrupulously following those which memory brought from the forum" *subducta foro,* and which will thus become "distinguished from the

* Schweig. Præf. ad Athenæum—this is a direct libel on the character of that old Commentator.

others by some slight improvements," as *meatus siderum* is used to express the various courses of the heavenly bodies, so here, by *celeri reatu* he means some slight variation in the course of expression. *Celer*, beside *swift*, means also short and slight, as *somnus celer* is a slight sleep. The whole passage then is both coherent and rational, although very quaintly expressed, and it wants no corrections in the text. In the two following lines the writer sends the student from Latin oratory to Latin poetry:

Dent epulas, et bella truci memorata canore;
Grandiaque indomiti Ciceronis verba minentur.

The original text has *minentur* not *minetur*, the former tallies better to *Dent* in the plural. "Let tutors give into the hands of students both *festive poetry*, and *horrid wars* made memorable in poetic song" and then after such a course of instruction, "Let them threaten with rivalship the magnificent language of the unconquerable soul of Cicero."—I may add, that the phrase *Romana manus circumfluat* may allude to the Roman practice of being attended by several amanuenses, whose employment was to write down what was dictated to them in words. Palmerius, moreover, saw so much of the meaning of *exonerata sono* that it recommended translation, while the subsequent line prescribed composition. "Aut verti de græco aut controversias componi censet;" but he had no conception of the meaning of *Fortuna sonet*, any more than your correspondent S. H.

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° X.

Odi profanum vulgus & arceo. HORACE.

I hate the rabble and despise
Alike their virtue and their vice.

I HAVE often wondered that nature should commit such a great oversight in not establishing proper distinctive marks for the various ranks of society. If things had been so arranged that all in a certain circle, our *fashionables* for example, should be tall, slender, handsome, and elegant; and that all who were translated from an inferior sphere to this upper region should instantly acquire these qualities, there could be little difficulty in distinguishing a person of fashion from the vulgar. But unluckily nature has neglected to make any such provision. We have the short, the squat, the crooked, the clumsy, the aukward and the hoobyish, even at Mrs. T———'s routs, and the Countess of K——'s suppers. There is indeed a particular *air* which is said to distinguish those who move in a certain region, and to be altogether unattainable beyond its boundaries. Such, however, are the effects of imitation in the circles below, and such the unkindly nature of some of the materials which fashion has to work upon, that even the initiated are often unable to trace a brother fashionable by his air.

The members of the *haut ton*, have therefore been obliged to supply the defects of nature by their own ingenuity; and hence arise the numerous refined contrivances which are daily invented, to separate the pure region of fashion from the gross atmosphere that hovers around it. Dress and equipage were formerly considerable badges of distinction; but the wives of the rich citizens, incited by a laudable ambition, soon broke through their old restraints of economy and deference to their betters; and Mrs. Flounder having transferred her residence from Cornhill to Cavendish-square, it was no longer possible to discover her origin either from her jewels or her liveries. This barrier being thus broken down, an immense gap was left in the fences of the fashionable world, through which multitudes from Change-alley, and even Pudding-lane are daily forcing an entrance.

Rich dresses were now given up; and it was resolved that the intruders by being deprived of ornament, should be exposed to derision in their native vulgarity. A rapid succession of whimsical fashions, and something new for every day, now distinguished the ladies of the *ton*. The industrious directresses of the *Magazins des Modes* however, rendered all these measures abortive; for the no-bodies were never above a day behind in their imitations, and the very waiting-maids were apt to be mistaken for their mistresses. The ladies of the first fashion, indeed, some time since made a bold effort, in which they thought none of the little could have the assurance to follow them; and in order to set all competition at defiance, actually appeared in public somewhat more than half naked. The enterprize, however, was not attended with that success which its boldness merited; for instantly the whole necks, arms, shoulders and bosoms, in the kingdom, were thrown open to the eye of the gazer. It is but yesterday that I cheapened a pair of gloves with a little damsel, who in point of nakedness might have vied with any duchess in the land.

The male fashionables have indeed adopted a more vigorous mode of revenge, for the encroachments made upon their dignity in the way of dress. They have begun by direct acts of retaliation; and as their valets and grooms had most impudently aspired to their dress and manners, they have in their turn usurped the garb and habits of these gentlemen. It is not to be doubted that this vigorous measure will have its due effect; for a groom must be exceedingly mortified to find so little gratification to his vanity in rising to his master's level.

But it is in their amusements that the fashionables have made the most strenuous efforts to preserve their circle inviolate; and their zeal has at length been rewarded with success. They have indeed been invaded at Vauxhall, annoyed at Ranelagh, and absolutely driven from the theatres; for although they still might have enjoyed their private boxes in security at the latter, yet the no-bodies had attained such an ascendancy there, both in numbers and figure, that it was not to be endured. An excellent expedient however, was hit upon to prevent such inconveniencies for the future, by selecting an amusement which should have no temptations for the vulgar. As long as the theatres, or Astley's, or the Circus, or Sadler's Wells, or in short any place which offers the least entertainment is to be found, there is no danger that the fashionables will be followed by the crowd to the Opera House. There they may in perfect security

enjoy their tete-a-tetes and their scandal, and perhaps listen at a few intervals to the queens and kings, who are torturing their vocal organs in wonderful modes, to draw down an inspiring *bravo! bravissimo!*

Other methods of distinction have been devised with equal zeal and ingenuity. The fashionables, perceiving that the vulgar were contented to have the stage and orchestra filled with professional people, determined to make this a ground of distinction, and thenceforwards to play and fiddle for themselves. The crowd, however, who were scrupulously shut out, could not endure that heroes and heroines should be stabbed and poisoned in the ordinary way without themselves having any part in the amusement. The hue and cry was therefore set up with such fury, that the fashionables were obliged to put an end to their mysteries, lest they should be actually violated by profane hands. The other resource, of *amateur* concerts, is by far more adviseable, and will be found perfectly secure. The crowd, I have already observed, cannot be prevailed upon, even by their desire of appearing fashionables, to listen whole nights to the enchanting Signora Squallanté uttering unknown words and unknown sounds; and surely it is far less to be apprehended, that they will be seized with any irresistible inclination to drink up the melodies of Lady Louisa Thrum, and the Honble. Mr. Hum.

To do justice to the taste and ingenuity of the great, there is something in all their pleasures, which distinguishes them from those of the little. The form indeed is soon copied by the latter, and there are routs and card-parties found in every quarter, as idle and as insipid as any in Portman-square. The little, however, on those occasions pay some attention to the convenience of their guests, and make some calculation of the size of their rooms before they issue their cards. The great, on the contrary, invite all the world; and the hostess is rendered the happiest creature in the universe, if there is not a single corner in her rooms where a living creature can sit, stand, or walk with comfort. A squeeze certainly formed a very agreeable variety amidst the languor of a rout; but since the accompaniment of hot suppers has been introduced, it has not been found altogether so pleasant. Every one has heard of the affair in Audley-street, where two hundred fashionables were pent up in the corners of the supper room, and had nothing to do but look on and make wry faces, while their fellow-guests made away with the chickens, and swept off the green pease without mercy. On talking of the affair to a young lady who was present, she told me with much emphasis, that she had *seen* all the delicacies of the season there. Great revolutions may be expected to arise in the fashionable world from these circumstances; it is whispered that the ladies *en bon point*, will be quickly out of all repute, and the price of vinegar and sallad is in consequence about to experience an extravagant rise. A very fashionable lady, who has as much money as she can spend, and consequently many more guests than she can well accommodate, has devised a very pretty method of preventing inconvenience, by introducing a fresh supper and a fresh set of guests at certain intervals, till the whole have partaken of the pleasures of the supper room. It is said that this lady, who has discovered such a tasteful method of prolonging a party, has resolved to improve still farther on the idea; and that when Bonaparte does something to call for another masquerade, she is to have such a crowd of fashionables, that the supper-rooms shall be replenished with new guests and new delicacies every two hours, and yet the entertainment extend through the whole four-and-twenty.

Such a plan is truly grand, and there is no danger of its being imitated by the little. It is only to be regretted, that it must necessarily give rise to a number of eclipses. An eclipse in the fashionable world is a temporary obscurity in which those, who have no perennial mints in Lombard-street, find it convenient to shroud themselves. When all the old woods have disappeared, when trades-people become importunate, and the Jews saucy, and when therefore it is no longer practicable to see one's friends by hundreds, a fashionable retirement is the resource. The little in these circumstances would begin to retrench, and think of only having ten guests where they had twenty before. But this is out of all rule in the circle of fashion; one must never seem less than he has once been. It is indeed a very easy affair to disappear out of the fashionable world, as no one thinks more of the matter, till the absentees find it convenient again to emerge in all their glory. Who ever thought of the charming Mrs. ———, during her last eclipse? And yet what parties are more frequented than hers, since she re-appeared? Her spirit indeed deserves the highest commendation; for it is well known that she mortified two whole years in an old castle, in order to enjoy her present blaze; and it is allowed her parties yield to none either in numbers or splendour, although the flash of this season must immediately be followed by another eclipse. Fashionable happiness is indeed something quite beyond the comprehension of the vulgar.

But of all the means by which the great set the little at a distance, there are none so effectual as trampling with contempt on certain restrictions, which the little are compelled to observe with reverence. Those old crabbed fellows the laws indeed, in this age and nation, are extremely unpropitious to the distinctions of high life; a lord and his tradesman are quite on a level in Westminster-Hall, nor have the surly jurors civilization enough to acquit a person on the plea of his being a man of fashion. But in spite of these untoward circumstances, there is still a sufficient degree of respect paid to morals and religion among the no-bodies, to afford considerable distinction by breaking through all their restraints: and a man of high fashion may be profligate and profane far beyond what his inferiors can openly venture. The vulgar, indeed, advance with rapid strides in the footsteps of their betters; they have also their affairs at Doctor's Commons, their E O tables, and their Sunday gambols; but things must with them be done in as private a way as possible, for they know that the Society for the Suppression of Vice is every where at their heels.

Having mentioned this Society, I cannot forbear to express my admiration of the superiority which the fashionable world have displayed with regard to it.

One part of the little esteem these censors, and another fear them; but the great find in them and their functions only a very pretty subject for burlesque. Religion and morality have so long furnished matter for ridicule, that the subject is become quite stale; to find out any thing new therefore in this way, discovers a most happy ingenuity. It does infinite honour to the genius of the person who first hit on the idea of holding up to public derision, those who had devoted their time and labour to the service of virtue and religion. There is a personality in the thing, which gives a new zest to the usual burlesque of these topics. The polite host and the fair hostess, who conducted this rich amusement, have established to themselves a deathless name in the fashionable records. Whenever religion and morals begin to grow saucy, they will universally be looked to as the avengers of the world of fashion; and in order to strike at the root of those nuisances at once, it is to be expected, that at their next masquerade, the entertainment will be the bench of bishops and the twelve judges of England.

In passing through St. James's Square sometime since, on a Sunday evening, I found my way quite blocked up by a crowd of very gay carriages. I immediately recollected having read in the Morning Post, a few days before, that a certain high titled lady's *Sunday partics* had commenced for the season. As I passed under the half-shut windows, my ears were saluted by the well-known bravura notes of a celebrated singer; but I understood afterwards, that she did not sing for pay on this occasion, but was received as a guest very well suited to the party. Every thing relating to this entertainment was conducted in such a manner as to display the most praise-worthy contempt for what is held in reverence by priests and old women. The preceding advertisement was a bold stroke at silly decorum in the eyes of the whole nation; and the open display of the party was well imagined, to shew that not a single scruple existed about trampling upon the most sacred customs of the country. This was in the high fashionable style, and quite beyond vulgar daring; for I have not heard that any of the little have yet ventured to advertise their intention of breaking the Sabbath.

It is astonishing that people should be found in this enlightened age, who look upon the Sunday amusements of the great as something very improper; when it can be proved by so many arguments, that it is so highly becoming in persons of a certain sphere to break the fourth commandment. For instance, we shall be told that the Sabbath was intended for reflection:—now who ever heard of reflection among people of fashion? And what should they reflect upon? Surely a whole day would be poorly spent in discussing over again the chances of last night's pharo bank, in weighing the degrees of admiration paid to the different head dresses at Lady Lucy's rout, or in calculating the value of Beau Noddy's compliments. With regard to the matters for reflection which other persons have, such as the intricacies of human affairs, and the many actions which cannot well be reconciled to reason or conscience, they are entirely out of the question; and when one has nothing to reflect upon, why 'tis surely better to do any thing than to sleep.

It would besides be a very great injustice to deprive the fashionable world of their Sunday's amusements. For the vulgar, who are occupied with various affairs during the week, feel the leisure of Sunday a sufficient enjoyment of itself; whereas people of fashion, who never have any thing at all to do, would find no novelty in being idle on Sunday, it is what they might be any day. To set their enjoyment therefore on a level, even with those of the vulgar, it is necessary that their Sunday pleasures should have some peculiar zest; and certainly the defiance of public decency and the scorn of religion must form a very nice savoury relish.

As imitation, however, cannot by any means be prevented, there is much reason to apprehend that the great will not long be able to appropriate the breach of the fourth commandment to themselves; nay, I understand that fashionable servants are already nearly as profane as their masters. To preserve the line of distinction still, a very odd scheme has been proposed; namely that the great, after having conducted the little to the utmost verge of profligacy, should themselves suddenly turn short, regain the old paths of morality, pay their debts, go to church, and observe the ten commandments. This plan, if practicable, would certainly place a very secure line of distinction between them and the multitude. But a few who some time ago tried the experiment found themselves nearly in the situation of the savage, who having long eat his victuals vastly well without knives or forks could perceive no use in these instruments; they had so long lived without the restraints of religion and morals, that they could not perceive the least benefit from submitting to them. The project was therefore soon abandoned as altogether useless, nor is there any reason to suppose it will again be resumed.

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Paper Currency.—Continued from page 635.

ALTHOUGH we consider Lord King's reasonings (to prove that British currency has sustained a depreciation by the excessive issue of paper money, since the suspension of payments in cash at the bank,) not to be conclusive, and although we are satisfied that it has not as yet sustained any depreciation, we deplore that suspension not less deeply than Lord King, and are not less apprehensive of the effects which it threatens. The danger, which is much greater and nearer than is generally conceived, consists in this; that when currency is by any forcible operation put out of its natural state, the whole system of credit is by that means altered; inconveniencies, proportionate to the magnitude of that credit, attend the restoring the currency to its proper state; and the disorders introduced into the system of credit are allowed to run on, till a complete subversion is the consequence. No man can deny that great difficulties would at present attend the renewal of payments in cash at the bank. The probability is, that a drain of gold and silver, beyond what the bank could sustain, would be

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immediately produced; and the public credit of the country destroyed. But is it at all probable that the case will be altered by delaying a little longer? The very reverse is probable; that the more the delay, the more also will the difficulty be encreased of renewing the payment. The reasons, accordingly, which now exist for continuing the suspension, will, in all probability, never be lessened, but continually encreased. There is no reason to hope therefore, that payments in cash at the bank will ever be renewed. The state will continue to struggle on, as long as it may; and at last will sink in a bankruptcy produced by the suspension of payments at the Bank, aided by other causes. This is the danger which we consider to be threatened by the suspension of cash payments. That no events may happen to avert this danger, it would be ridiculous to affirm. But we are clearly of opinion that it is much more likely to be realized than averted.

The circumstances which led to a measure of such disastrous tendency deserve to be accurately remembered; and we believe they are by far too little known, and have made much too slight an impression on the public mind. The last war was very much distinguished for the greatness of the supplies granted to carry it on. It was probably not less distinguished for an extreme want of order and accuracy in the mode of expending these supplies; in so much, that great as they were, they were always expended long before the proper time; and each year great arrears were incurred, which had to be paid out of the income of the succeeding year.

It seems the minister for finance, after he had expended the income of the current year, and when some time was to elapse before the income of the succeeding could begin to flow in, was often put to great difficulties how to answer the demands upon the treasury. He had no better method than to borrow of the Bank of England. In a certain limited degree this expedient had been adopted in various periods of our history; and money was advanced by the Bank on Treasury bills of exchange, till the amount was 20,000*l.* or 30,000*l.*; when it was customary for the treasury to send down orders for the amount of such advances to be set off from the respective accounts to which the bills properly belonged. Whenever these advances went higher, and when they amounted to near 50,000*l.* it used to be a subject of complaint, and a requisition was sent by the Bank to the Treasury for their being immediately discharged. The Bank, it seems, at those periods, did not think it within its power, did not think it safe for its credit, or consistent with its engagements to the public, to advance to government on private loans so much as 50,000*l.*

In the American war however, during which all the best maxims of policy were so much relaxed, during which so much disorder was introduced into every department of the state, during which mismanagement of public affairs reduced the nation to such a state of imbecility; in this period of evil memory, the private loans by the Bank to government were very greatly encreased. Instead of never amounting to 50,000*l.* they were now allowed to accumulate to the enormous sum of 150,000*l.*

This dangerous irregularity, however, is but a trifle to what was exhibited in the last war. The demands by Mr. Pitt for these secret loans were urged till the advances of the Bank rose to upwards of 500,000*l.*; at which time, it appears, the Directors became alarmed. This temporary alienation of the property of the Bank made them seriously apprehensive that they had put themselves out of condition to answer their engagements with the public at large. Accordingly on the 15th of January 1795, they came to a resolution, which they communicated to the Chancellor of the Exchequer; "That they could not allow their advances for payment of Treasury bills of exchange to exceed *at any time* the sum of 500,000*l.*" If we compare this even with the extraordinary advances of the American war, it will appear to be a pretty liberal allowance. It will appear that the Bank had not stopt short in its accommodations till it was high time. If we compare it with the sum which the Bank thought itself at liberty to advance before that war, it will be considered enormous.

But what will the reader say, when he is informed that this sum, great as it is beyond all precedent, was in the course of a few months doubled, tripled, and quadrupled? This will appear by an extract from the minutes of the Court of Directors, dated the 16th of April, 1795:

"The Governor and Deputy-Governor were directed by the Court to wait upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer, and to mention to him the uneasiness they felt on being left during so long a period, in an advance of one and a half, to upwards of two millions of money, for the bills accepted by the Treasury. That this mode of paying the Treasury bills in advance, was never meant to be carried to any great extent, at the most to 500,000*l.*; and that only as a temporary accommodation."

"The Chancellor of the Exchequer did promise to the Governor and Deputy-Governor in December last, and particularly in a conversation on 17th January, that the amount of these bills paid at the bank, then exceeding 500,000*l.* should certainly be paid off after the receipt of the first payment on the new loan; which promise hath not yet taken place. The Court have therefore come to a resolution, that they cannot in future allow of any disburse on this account, exceeding the sum of 500,000*l.*; and they do request that the Chancellor of the Exchequer will order the same to be paid?"

From this appear not only the monstrous demands which had been complied with by the Bank; but also the extreme solicitude of the Directors on account of the state into which their affairs had been thrown by their compliance; an anxiety which led them in so determined a manner to express their resolution of no further compliance, and to urge with so much importunity the Chancellor of the Exchequer to make good his promises.

These promises were not made good; and on the 5th of June the Bank found themselves under the necessity of sending the following note to Mr. Pitt.

Bank, 5th June, 1795.

"The Governor and Deputy-Governor of the Bank present their respectful compliments to Mr. Pitt; and

take the liberty of stating to him, that though he was pleased to promise, the last time they had the honour of an interview, that the account of the Treasury bills paid by the bank, should immediately be reduced to the sum of 500,000*l.* (beyond which sum, by a resolution of the court, it was not to pass;) the Bank are now in advance on that account 1,210,015*l.* 17*s.* 5*d.* and before the end of next week it will be encreased to 1,058,467*l.*—They at the same time beg to express their concern at being so repeatedly obliged to trouble him on the subject; hoping he will give such directions as may in future prevent it."

On the 30th of July, the Court of Directors formed a resolution to give orders to the Cashiers to refuse payment of all Treasury bills, whenever the advance should amount to 500,000*l.*

On the 5th and 6th of August a request was made by the Chancellor of the Exchequer by two letters, for a further accommodation from the Bank, of two millions and a half on the growing produce of the consolidated fund; when the Court of Directors entered into two separate resolutions not even to consider the request, "untill they received satisfaction respecting the re-payment of the monies already advanced for payment of Treasury bills of exchange, to reduce that account under the stipulated sum of 500,000*l.* above which the bank was never to be in advance; and until it has had sufficient security held out that it shall not be called upon to make further advances on this account in future: and that they do request Mr. Pitt to enter into full explanations on this subject, which is not even touched upon in his letter"

On the 10th of October, after stating various circumstances which had excited apprehensions in the Bank directors, they say, "that on the most serious deliberation, they deem it right to communicate to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the absolute necessity they conceive to exist for diminishing the sum of their present advances to government;—the last having been granted with *extreme reluctance* on their part, on his *pressing solicitations*, and statement, that *serious embarrassments would arise to the public service*, if the Bank refused."

On 28th January 1796, the Governor of the Bank having informed the Court of Directors, that a notice was brought this morning from the Treasury, that certain bills drawn on the Commissioners of the Treasury, amounting to the sum of 201,000*l.* would fall due on Wednesday, 3d of February, and were directed for payment at the Bank: and that the sum now in advance on Treasury bills is 1,157,000.

Resolved unanimously; That the Governor do give directions *to the Cashiers not to advance any money* for the payment of these bills, nor to discharge any part of the same, unless money shall be sent down for the purpose; in which case such money is to be appropriated exclusively for the discharge of these bills.

On 27th of July, 1795, Mr. Pitt having requested large accommodations from the Bank, and urged in the most importunate manner compliance with the request; stating, "that objects of the utmost importance to the public, were involved in it, the bank complied. but the Court of Directors "Resolved, That this Court do expect that the Chancellor of the Exchequer will give a promise that *a new mode* of paying the Treasury bills shall be adopted immediately on the meeting of parliament, *as this Court will not continue the mode of discharging them any longer.*"

"Resolved, That this Court having granted the accommodation *with great reluctance* and contrary to their wishes, the Governor be desired to transmit to Mr. Pitt a copy of the following memorial; and request of him, that, for the justification of the Court of Directors, the same may be laid before his Majesty's cabinet.

"The Court of Directors of the Bank of England, *fully sensible of the alarming and dangerous situation of the public credit of this kingdom*, and deeply impressed with the communication lately made to them by the Right Hon. Wm. Pitt, both by letter, and in a conference with the Governor and Deputy-Governor, are very willing and desirous to do every thing in their power to support the national credit, and to enable his Majesty's ministers to carry on the public service; but in complying with the request made to them by the Right Hon. Wm. Pitt, in his letter of the 27th inst. they think that they should be wanting in their duty to their proprietors, and to the public, if that compliance was not accompanied with the following most serious and solemn remonstrance; which for the justification of this Court, they desire may be laid before his Majesty's cabinet.

"They beg leave to declare, that nothing could induce them, under the present circumstances, to comply with the demand now made upon them, but the dread that their refusal might be productive of a greater evil, and nothing but *the extreme pressure and exigency of the case*, can in any shape *justify* them for acceding to this measure, and they apprehend, that in so doing, they render themselves totally incapable of granting any further assistance to government during the remainder of this year, and unable even to make the usual advances on the land and malt for the ensuing year, should those bills be passed before Christmas.

"They likewise consent to this measure in a firm reliance, that the repeated promises so frequently made to them, that the advances on the treasury bills should be completely done away, may be actually fulfilled at the next meeting of parliament; and the necessary arrangements taken to prevent the same from ever happening again, as they conceive it to be an UNCONSTITUTIONAL mode of raising money, *what they are not warranted by their charter to consent to*, and an advance always extremely inconvenient to themselves."

The state of alarm and even of despair in which the Bank were placed, before they had recourse to such a remonstrance as this, may well be conceived.

On the 1st of February 1797, the Governor and Deputy Governor waited upon the Chancellor of the Exchequer, "to represent to him how uneasy the Court were at their large advances for government, and especially on the Treasury bills paid, which now amounted to 1,554,035*l.* and would in a few days be augmented to 1,819,818; and required that some effective measure should be immediately taken for the payment of the whole of this sum, as had been so

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seriously promised them should be done at the opening of this year."

These remonstrances were all ineffectual, and on the 26th of the same month, the affairs of the Bank came to a crisis. They found themselves unable to fulfil their engagements. They applied to the Chancellor of the Exchequer for relief; and he produced the order in council for the suspension of payments in cash; that event of which we have not yet tasted all the bitter effects. After the deduction which we have given, it appears not to be in the power of prejudice itself to mistake the cause of that fatal measure. Surely the declarations of the Governor and Directors of the Bank themselves will be thought sufficient evidence, if it be possible that any one should require it.

On the 24th of March 1797, the Governor of the Bank was examined before the Lords' committee of secrecy, thus;

Q. Have you, at any of the conferences you have had with the Chancellor of the Exchequer, as Governor of the Bank, made representations to him of the danger to the Bank from the diminution of its specie?

A. Often.

Q. Can you state the dates of such representations?

A. There are a variety of dates, but I cannot recollect them. I think the first by the Bank was in December 1794, when I was directed to make such representations.

Q. Do you conceive that every exertion has been made by the Bank to obtain re-payment of the advances made to government since the 1st of January, 1795?

A. Yes, save that of lending more.

Q. If, in consequence of the various remonstrances that have been made to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the advances by the Bank to government had been either paid off or greatly diminished, do you not conceive it would have enabled the Bank to regulate, at their discretion, the amount of the bank notes in circulation?

A. Undoubtedly.

Q. If the advances had been either paid off or greatly diminished at the periods you applied for such payments, do you think the necessity of the order in council of the 26th of February would have existed?

A. Had the advances to government been considerably less, I do not think the order in council would have been necessary.

On the 21st of March, Mr. Bosanquet being examined before the same committee;

Q. If, in consequence of the various remonstrances that have been made to the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the advances of the Bank to government had been either paid off or greatly diminished, do you not conceive it would have enabled the Bank to regulate, at their discretion, the amount of bank notes in circulation?

A. I conceive it would have tended to that end in a great degree.

What conclusions are to be drawn respecting that management of the public treasury, which could give occasion to such enormous, and continued irregularities and deficiencies, we leave for the present, to our readers. What likewise are the probable consequences of that suspension of payments, to which these irregularities gave occasion, a suspension which yet remains, and for the removal of which no time can be specified, we shall not, just now, pursue any further. But there is one other transaction, connected with this business, which we will shortly unfold, a transaction which, however negligently it was passed over at the moment, and however little attention it has attracted since, will undoubtedly be strongly marked by the future historian, and promises to have no slight influence upon the future fortunes of the British empire.

The uneasiness of Mr. Pitt and the Bank Directors, on account of the proceedings which had taken place between them, arose from other causes, besides that momentous one, of endangering the public credit of the kingdom. They knew that they were acting illegally and unwarrantably. In that solemn remonstrance against the practice adopted by Mr. Pitt, of extorting money on advance from the Bank, that remonstrance which, distrusting the attention which would be paid to it by Mr. Pitt, they desired might be presented to his Majesty's cabinet, the Bank Directors declared their conviction, that the transactions in which they had been involved so deeply, and so much against their will, were *unconstitutional*, and contrary to the terms of their charter. There existed the statute of William and Mary, limiting the advances which the Bank should make to government, and establishing severe penalties for transgressing these limits. In the true spirit of wisdom was this statute framed, the dependence of the crown upon parliament for money, is the only constitutional restraint upon it which parliament possesses; and it wished not that the crown should possess the means of supplying its wants independently of parliament. It therefore confined to a very small sum the advance which the Bank should dare to make to government. This sum, during the last war, was much smaller than government wished to receive, and even smaller than the Bank were willing to give. It was therefore proposed between the Bank Directors and Mr. Pitt, to obtain a law to extend a little the terms of the statute of William. "What the limit was," said Mr. Bosanquet, before the lords of the secret committee, "to which the advances of the Bank should be fixed, was never absolutely settled; but I remember in conversation we talked over the propriety of making it either 50,000*l.* or 100,000*l.* What followed? A thing which will not soon be forgotten in the history of Great Britain. A clause was brought in for extending the power of the Bank to grant advances to government; and *it was contrived to leave out all limitation whatsoever.* The Bank received a power to advance money to government, independently of parliament, without penalty or controul! "How the idea of a limit happened to go off," said Mr. Bosanquet on the occasion mentioned above, "or why the clause was left at large in the act of parliament I know not. The real fact is, that I did not know that the clause was carried through without a limitation until the act had passed." In this manner was one of the most salutary restraints upon the executive government got rid of: in this manner did the minister obtain a most dangerous accession to his power.

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The Bank was now left without any restraint in supplying government with money independently of Parliament, but their own discretion. They had still, however, one pretty strong motive to keep them within bounds; their own interest. Too great an accommodation of their funds to government made it difficult for them to keep their engagements with the public, and endangered their credit. They were obliged to pay in specie all the just demands which came upon them. They were obliged, therefore, to take care that their advances to government should never put them out of a condition to answer these demands. From their papers it appears to have been their own fixed opinion that 500,000*l.* was the utmost extent to which they could safely proceed. This was considerably beyond the limit of 50,000*l.* or 100,000*l.* which, before passing the act, they thought should be legally fixed to restrain them. However it was still some limit. But what is the case now? The Bank is exempted, by the act of suspension, from all obligation to answer the just demands upon it. Its advances to government cannot now put it in any fear of being unable to answer the demands of the public; because it has none to answer. It has now therefore no motive from interest, to be sparing in its advances to government. It may pay the bills of exchange on the treasury, by printing bank notes to any amount, since no man can demand cash for them; and thus the treasury may be supplied with millions upon millions, of which parliament has no knowledge, and over the employment of which it has no controul.

That parliament to which Great Britain owes so much gratitude, which settled the terms of our liberties at the revolution, thought proper, beside the restraint upon the Bank from its interest in supplying the wants of government without the authority of parliament, to limit the precise sum which it should dare to afford, and to impose penalties in case of transgression. Mr. Pitt first thought proper to remove the prohibitory statute, and take away all the limitation by law; and very soon after to take away all the limitation arising from interest; and thus to obtain full scope between the minister and the Bank for what transactions they may think proper.

These historical facts have led us from the speculative points connected with this inquiry. We shall resume them in our next Number.

Political History from June 1 to June 16.

FOREIGN.

French State Trials.—The whole attention of the people of France, is at present occupied by the state-trials, as from the number of persons implicated, the result becomes a very general concern. This affair is well calculated to turn the public from speculations on the policy of the new Emperor's assuming the Imperial dignity; and may in this light be considered as a happy circumstance for him, whether he owes it to fortune or design. If the humiliation of Moreau, the idol of so large a proportion of the French people, can be considered as any additional security to Bonaparte's power, that object has been completely effected. By a sort of submissive or rather indeed penitential letter which Moreau has written to Bonaparte, he has for ever degraded himself in the eyes of all men who admire firmness and magnanimity. He indeed denies the charges of conspiracy urged against him, but he owns an intercourse with Pichegru, and endeavours to palliate his conduct by alledging his intimacy with his old commander. To have had any connection with the crude and hair-brained plan of the conspirators, (if indeed it can at all be called a plan) was weak; to deprecate the wrath of the rival against whom he would have conspired is contemptible. Bonaparte seems to have known Moreau's character, and that to make him disgrace himself, and thus become no longer formidable, it was only necessary to place him in a trying situation. The witnesses against Moreau, assert that he wished by means of the royalists to destroy Bonaparte, and then to render himself Dictator; and that the discovery of this latter design disgusted his associates, and greatly contributed to relax their operations. The number of persons at present on their trial amounts to forty-seven. Most of the witnesses against them are military men and police officers, who are naturally more particularly under the influence of government. The accused often object to their testimonies, and alledge that their depositions have been previously concerted. There can however, no doubt be entertained, that as many of them as the government chuses, will be found guilty; but it is expected that the Emperor Napoleon will distinguish the commencement of his new reign by a royal act of clemency, and pardon the greater part, if not the whole of the conspirators.

Russian Note.—The Note of the Russian Minister to the Diet of Ratisbon, has produced merely the consequence that might have been presupposed. Any thing vigorous was not to be expected from a body, one half of whom are paralyzed by fear, while the other half are incapable of any effectual resistance to the encroachments of France. They have merely replied to the Russian minister, that they are aware that the acts of violation have taken place; but they at the same time express a confidence that the First Consul will apologize for an act which must have been done without his sanction. This feeble reference of the question, to a hope which they are not children enough to expect ever to be realized, shews the dread impressed on their minds by the power and violence of Bonaparte. That they worship France only from dread, is however sufficiently certain, and if Russia were heartily to enter into the cause, they would probably embrace the first opportunity to throw off their yoke. No circumstance as yet, shews any return of amity between France and Russia. It is asserted that the French ambassador Hedouville, has been recalled from St. Petersburg.

DOMESTIC.

Army Bill.—Mr. Pitt has come forward with a plan, which from his speeches we understand he had been maturing during his retirement from office. It has for its object the strengthening of the regular force, and providing a permanent source for recruiting. As the Bill in its progress through the Houses of Parliament may undergo very material alterations, it

would be useless at present to enter into its details; all we can with certainty do is to state the principal outlines which cannot well be altered without altering the whole plan. The leading provisions are to put an end to the ballot for the Army of Reserve and Militia, and to allow the latter establishment gradually to diminish to its original complement of 40,000 for England, and 8000 for Scotland. About 7000 men of the augmented Militia establishment, and 9000 of the Army of Reserve are still wanting: these are immediately to be raised and added to the Army of Reserve, which is to be kept up to 74,000 men. The means to be employed, in place of the ballot, for procuring the 16,000 men at present wanting to this full establishment of the Army of Reserve, and to fill up the blanks which may for the future occur in it, they are to be raised by the different parishes, the quota of each being proportioned to its respective population. The men are to be found by the parishes, and government is to pay a bounty of six pounds for each; or if the parishes neglect to find them, they are to pay a fine of six pounds to government for each man wanting of their quota. The Army of Reserve, so raised and so maintained, is to form the permanent additional force and source for the recruiting of the regular army. Each regiment of the Army of Reserve is to be attached to a regular regiment as a second battalion; and the men of this second battalion are to be allowed to enlist at pleasure into the regular regiment to which they are attached, and into no other. The general recruiting service is in the mean time to go on, with a bounty of ten pounds a man; and every man who quits the Army of Reserve for the regular service receives a bounty of four pounds, the difference between ten pounds and his original bounty.—Such are the principal provisions of Mr. Pitt's plan. The abolition of the unequal and oppressive mode of ballot certainly deserves much approbation; yet it is very doubtful whether the methods substituted in its room will prove effectual. When individuals paid the fine of twenty pounds to escape the Army of Reserve, and the parishes offered forty and even fifty guineas bounty without still being able to procure their quota of men, is it to be expected that a bounty of six pounds a man, will prove any temptation to enlist? Is it not much more probable that the parishes will rather pay the penalty of six pounds for each man, than undertake the trouble of finding him? Indeed they *must* pay it, for to find men at this bounty is impossible. This new mode of raising men, seems therefore, merely a method of raising money, without a direct tax, for the general recruiting service. This and many other objections to the plan, our limits forbid us to discuss.

NOTICES.

Pallas.—Accounts from Akmetschet, in Crim Tartary, state the death of the celebrated traveller and naturalist Pallas. The works of this ingenious investigator of natural objects have been translated into English, and are already known to the public. The Russian empire boasts in him the first native whose name has obtained a high rank in the annals of science, and been associated with those of distinguished philosophers in every country of Europe. He had travelled over a great part of the Russian empire, in pursuit of his favourite studies; and had peculiarly fixed his attention on Crim Tartary, as yielding so many objects to his curiosity. He has not only greatly enriched the sciences of mineralogy and botany by his researches; but his observations on the state of various parts of the Russian empire must prove of the greatest use to its government.

Necker.—This statesman, so well known from his writings, and the transactions in which he was engaged, died on the 10th of April, at Copet, in the neighbourhood of Geneva. The vicissitudes of his fortune were remarkable. His father, who had come originally from Kustrin, was employed at Geneva as a professor of Jurisprudence. James Necker, his son, was born there in the year 1732; and commenced his political career by being admitted into the council of the two hundred. He was afterwards appointed minister of the Republic of Geneva at Paris, where by degrees he rose to the highest employments. In 1765 he was appointed Syndic of the East India Company, in 1775 Director of the Royal Treasury, in 1776 General Director of the French Finances, and afterwards twice prime-minister. The history of his transactions while in power, and his subsequent fall, is too intimately connected with the late important events, which have agitated all Europe, not to be generally known. Since his retirement from office, he has lived at his estate of Copet in the neighbourhood of Geneva; and has devoted his time to the composition of several works on religious, moral, and political subjects. His talents as well as his conduct have been the matter of much dispute. It is sufficient for us to observe, that although a foreigner, a protestant, and a citizen, he rose to the highest situations in France, at a time when each of these circumstances formed an obstacle to his advancement. When out of power, he was enabled to spend his leisure in retirement, and to devote himself to the rational pursuits of a philosopher and a man of taste; a rare fortune for a fallen statesman. His wife, also well-known both in the political and the literary world, died about eight years ago. His only daughter, Madame *Stael-Holstein*, was married to the Swedish Ambassador of that name, who some time since resided at Paris. She is now a widow, and has distinguished herself by several literary performances; particularly her late novel, *Delphine*, in which she has suffered her desire of working strongly on the feelings, to overpower every idea of good taste, morality, and religion.

Wolfgang von Kempelen.—This ingenious mechanic, so well known for his chess-playing automaton, his speaking machine, and several other works of the same nature, died at Vienna on the 22nd of last March, in the 71st year of his age.

Russian Literature.—*Martinoff*, director of the department of public instruction in Russia, has commenced a periodical publication called the *Northern publisher*. The first Number contains an account of the state of learning in Russia, from the earliest times to the present.

St. Petersburg.—The counsellor von Reimer, is shortly to publish a picture of *St. Petersburg* at the commencement of the nineteenth century. He has with great care consulted the best sources from which information could be derived.

Danish Drama.—Professor Nyerup, the assessor Höst, and the player Heger at Copenhagen, are superintending a superb edition of the whole works of the father of the Danish theatre, the celebrated *Ludwig Baron Hollberg*.

Rewards of the Fine Arts.—*Caraffe*, the celebrated French painter, has received from the Empress of Russia, where he now resides, a beautiful gold snuff-box with a miniature of her, drawn by himself, as a testimony of her admiration of his talents. This artist is soon to leave St. Petersburg for Moscow and Vienna.

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LITERATURE.

REVIEW OF BOOKS.

The Life of George Washington, &c. &c. Compiled under the Inspection of the Hon. Bushrod Washington, from Original Papers bequeathed to him by his deceased Relative. To which is prefixed an Introduction, containing a Compendious View of the Colonies planted by the English on the Continent of North America, from their Settlement till the Commencement of that War which terminated in their Independence. By John Marshall, *Chief Justice of the United States, &c. &c. Vol. I. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. R. Phillips.*

A BOOK with this title naturally excites curiosity. The fortune of the United States of America, and the character of General Washington have long been in the eyes of mankind among the greatest objects on this globe. The degree of splendour to which the United States have risen among nations; the recent date of their origin; and the singularity of the events by which their history has been distinguished, are strongly calculated to attract attention. The man with whose name the greater number of the most recent of these events, and the most distinguishable to the public eye, are chiefly associated, cannot fail to be an object of great curiosity. To know the particulars of the conduct and character of the individuals they have known or heard of is a propensity of the bulk of mankind so strong as frequently to give currency to the lives of very insignificant persons, even where the execution of the work is hardly above the subject. A book, in which anecdotes of one or more illustrious persons are contained, is always greedily sought after. So great is the name of Washington, that an account of his life, even though imperfect, will be expected to be very interesting; and when it is said to be drawn from documents so ample, and so authentic as the whole collection of papers left by himself in the possession of his family, it seems as if our expectations could hardly be raised too high.

With one half of the history of the United States, that half in which the transactions, if not the most important, are at least the most striking, the history of General Washington is so incorporated that the author of the work presented to us, considers both as being the same thing: This latter part of the history of that country he regards not as complete without the former; since the causes of the events which occurred in the one period are frequently to be found in the events of the other. A history of the United States therefore, from the first feeble settlements of the English on the American Continent to the commencement of the disputes which terminated in the establishment of their independence, he regards as a necessary introduction to the life of Washington; and by prefixing this detail, he purposes to exhibit in that work a complete history of this new and singular empire.

To this plan we have some objections. The history of an individual and the history of a nation are two very different things, in whatever degree the transactions of the nation may have been influenced by those of the individual. There are many actions of the individual which have not such a connection with the transactions of the nation as to deserve to be mentioned in its history. And many events and circumstances in the nation deserve to be minutely recorded in its history, which cannot have a good title to a place in the life of any man however much concerned in conducting its affairs. To jumble together these two classes of actions and circumstances must obviously tend to introduce confusion and obscurity. We do not deny that it may be possible to write an interesting and instructive book, in which these discordant things may be combined. But we are sure that the Life would be better were it written strictly as a Life, and the History written strictly as a History, than either can be when they are mixed up together and formed into one work. The history must be injured when it is interrupted to detail the particulars of the life; and the narrative of the life must be injured when it is interrupted to detail many particulars of the history. From the complicated nature of modern policy the various particulars which intimately belong to history are found so numerous and diversified as scarcely to admit of being woven into one connected narrative. It has accordingly been proposed to make a classification of these objects; and to form the history of any country into a number of distinct narratives;—as the history of its military affairs; that of its political regulations; that of its manners; and of its arts and sciences; and so on. This, it has been conceived, would contribute greatly to distinctness and simplicity. But if the objects of historical narrative are already too numerous, it must be particularly injudicious still further to load it with the particulars of biography. No; the province of biography, and that of history are not the same: nor ought the one to be allowed to encroach upon the other. The rules to direct the composition of the one are different from those which belong to the other. And it is contrary to good taste to compose a history in the style of a life, or a life in the style of a history. This distinction is carefully preserved by all the best historians and biographers. Plutarch wrote the lives of great warriors and statesmen; yet his life of Pericles, for example, on whom the fate of Athens as completely depended during forty years, as that of America on Washington, is far from being a complete history of Athens for that period, and contains many particulars of the private life of that great man, which the judicious Plutarch would not have inserted in that history. Again, Robertson's History of Charles the Fifth, is not the history of the emperor, but of his

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reign. It wants therefore many things which would have appeared in a life of that prince, and contains things which there would have been very much out of place. It is the business of biography to descend to minute particulars, and in the most private and ordinary transactions the great traits of character are often the most visibly seen. To describe great, and general actions, and to trace their causes and consequences is the business of history. To mix with this inquiries into minute and private actions is only to destroy all distinctness, and to introduce confusion and perplexity. We are therefore much inclined to suspect that in the present work we shall neither have a good life of Washington, nor a good history of America.

It is the intention of the authors or editors of this work, it seems, to publish it volume by volume; and it is expected to be finished in four or five volumes, similar to the present. The first only is as yet presented to us; and that does not enter upon the life of Washington. It is altogether preliminary; and is intended to deduce the history of the United States from their origin to the termination of the war which displaced the French power in Canada. It was only after this time that the great disputes began between the Colonies and England, when the talents and services of Washington became conspicuous. He is indeed twice mentioned in the present volume; first, on the occasion of the mission which he executed to remonstrate with the French government on certain encroachments near the Ohio; and secondly, serving, with the rank of colonel, under general Braddock, on the expedition against fort Du Quesne; when neglect of his advice was followed with such disastrous consequences.

This volume therefore is to be regarded purely as a history; and in that light its merits and defects are to be estimated. It is undoubtedly a history very much wanted. However important it may be to have the steps distinctly pointed out by which a people from the smallest beginnings has risen with such inconceivable rapidity to great power and splendour, no account of the progress of the North American States of any considerable merit has yet been presented to the public; and the important lessons which it yields are thus too little diffused. The illustrious historian who has so perfectly described the origin and progress of the Spanish colonies in the new world, designed to communicate a similar account of the British establishments in that part of the globe; and had he done so, we should have no doubt received as ample satisfaction with regard to this branch of the subject, as he has afforded with regard to the other. However great too the obligation which he has conferred upon the world by his history of the Spanish settlements in America, he would have conferred a much greater by a history of the British, a subject far richer in every kind of instruction, and a subject which throws much light upon many important branches of modern policy. In the preface to his history of Spanish America, he has mentioned that he had made considerable progress toward the accomplishment even of this last object; but unfortunately was deterred from proceeding by the disturbances which broke out between the colonies and the mother-country while he was engaged in the work. Since his death a part of what he designed to execute, has been given to the world by his son; which bears evident marks of the skilful hand which delineated the proceedings of the Spaniards in America. The plan which Robertson had formed to himself in the prosecution of this part of his subject is laid down in the fragment to which we allude, and is peculiarly judicious. After giving a short account of the trifling voyages of discovery which had been made under the auspices of the crown of England to the coast of America; and of the few feeble and abortive attempts which had been made to establish colonies there, previous to the reign of James the First, he comes to the more effectual endeavours of that prince, in whose reign two companies were established, one in London, to whom the southern portion of North America was granted, and one at Plymouth, who received a similar grant of the northern portion. The regions granted to these two colonies were Virginia and New England.

"The first attempts," says Robertson, "to occupy Virginia and New England, were made by very feeble bodies of emigrants. As these settled under great disadvantages, among tribes of savages, and in an uncultivated desert; as they attained gradually, after long struggles and many disasters, to that maturity of strength and order of policy, which entitles them to be considered as respectable states, the history of their persevering efforts merits particular attention. It will exhibit a spectacle no less striking than instructive, and presents an opportunity, which rarely occurs, of contemplating a society in the first moment of its political existence, and of observing how its spirit forms in its infant state, how its principles begin to unfold as it advances, and how those characteristic qualities, which distinguish its maturer age are successively acquired. The account of the establishment of the other English colonies, undertaken at periods when the importance of such undertakings was better understood, and effected by more direct and vigorous exertions of the parent state, is less interesting. I shall therefore relate the history of the two original colonies in detail. With respect to the subsequent settlements, some more general observations concerning the time, the motives, and circumstances of their establishment, will be sufficient."

He begins with the history of Virginia, the most ancient and the most important of the British establishments in North America; and carries it down to the revolution in 1688. His history of New England is not continued farther than the time of Cromwell. Here the labours of Robertson terminate, and beyond this limit the history of North America is little more than waste ground.

The person who has undertaken the compilation of the present history of America and Washington, seems but little to understand the nature and value of distribution and arrangement; for notwithstanding the luminous and simple plan pointed out by Robertson, he has paid no regard whatever to order; and the facts are jumbled together in such a manner that they lay no hold of the memory, nor present any connected train of ideas to the understanding. He has almost without variation followed Robertson to

the end of his history of Virginia. Robertson's account is a little abridged; and the language is altered so that one half of it perhaps is Robertson's, and the other the abridger's. In this manufacture all the elegance of Robertson's stile is destroyed, the distinctness of the narrative is injured: that connection which is always so clearly exhibited in the histories of Robertson between the situations of men and their actions, between events and the causes from which they arise, is obscured; and those luminous views which that historian presents of the different schemes of policy connected with the events which he has to relate, are lost.

We could not help considering it as a proof of the extreme carelessness with which the present compilation is made, that the compiler is not even acquainted with the name of the author to whose assistance he has so liberally applied himself. We find the name of Robertson, so well known, always written in his quotations Robinson.

He follows Robertson nearly in the same manner in his account of New England; and it is perhaps but fair to give his own account of the use which he has made of the different authors to whom he has had recourse:

"Various publications have, for this purpose, been occasionally resorted to, and are quoted for all those facts which are detailed in part on their authority. Their very language has sometimes been employed without distinguishing the passage, especially when intermingled with others, by marks of quotation; but, in such instances, the book is cited in the margin: and the author persuades himself that this public declaration will rescue him from the imputation of receiving aids he is unwilling to acknowledge, or of wishing by a concealed plagiarism, to usher to the world as his own, the labours of others."

That part of the history which succeeds the period when Robertson's account breaks off, the author is obliged to take upon his own shoulders. And truly we cannot say much in praise either of the diligence which appears to have been employed in collecting materials, or of the use which he has made of such as have been collected by others.

We have already remarked that the history of the United States, previous to this attempt, might be said to be still in a great measure unwritten. Unlike other countries, in which coarse compilations had been made, which, however unfit for general use in their rude form, yet contained a valuable store of authentic materials for the legitimate historian, few documents respecting the early proceedings of many of the United States were before the public. If any where these documents are to be found, it must be in the archives and registers of the several provinces. And if to any persons access to these be open, it might naturally be supposed to be to the son of General Washington, for the purpose of completing an account of the life of his father, and to the Chief Justice of the United States employed in drawing up that life. Yet this account of the early proceedings of the States is drawn up entirely from the vulgar and scanty documents already before the public; and not even an attempt has been made to present us with any thing more perfect. The author candidly acknowledges that this is the case; and that the collection of the requisite materials "would require a length of time, and a labour of research which neither the impatience of the public, nor the situation of the author would enable him to bestow on the subject." He applies the terms "crude essay," "imperfect sketch," to his own performance. This may be a very good salvo for the author's reputation; but it is a poor satisfaction to the public, who have a large, expensive book imposed upon them, which is good for little or nothing.

In the management of the common materials for which we are under no obligation to Mr. Bushrod Washington, or Chief Justice Marshall, we cannot say that they have established very strong claims upon our gratitude or admiration. There is no order in the relation of the facts; they follow one another according to no plan; there is no enlightened view of the causes and origin of events; there is no exhibition of their chain and connection; of any of the schemes of policy by which the affairs of the United States were influenced, there is scarcely any notice; not even a distinct outline of them is exhibited; much less is there any satisfactory account of their nature, and tendency. And any one who has no knowledge of the species of government under which the British Colonies subsisted in America, previous to the interruption of their connection with the mother country, will not find himself much instructed in the subject by a perusal of the volume before us.

The history of the North American Colonies, from the place where Mr. Marshall may be said to have taken it up, that is, where it is laid down by Dr. Robertson, till the commencement of the disputes with the mother country, is naturally divided into two distinct portions, of which, however, Mr. Marshall seems not to have been at all aware: first, that period during which the several colonies were struggling individually with the difficulties of an infant establishment, scarcely in any degree connected with one another, or contending about their boundaries, and other interfering interests; and secondly, after they had now attained a state nearly of equal firmness and prosperity, that period during which their efforts were united together against a common enemy, the French in Canada, and when advancing all by similar steps, they exhibit the appearance of one nation. It is evident that the mode of treating these two portions of the history of America ought to be very different. In the first part each province or colony requires a separate and distinct attention; and no plan can be more judicious than that pointed out by Dr. Robertson, to relate the history of the two most ancient and important establishments in detail; and with regard to the others, to state only the more important dates and general circumstances; and any difference which was found between these and the states more fully described. Much care and art was necessary in arranging a multitude of contemporary particulars to prevent the need of disgusting repetition. Those parts of the subject should have been carefully thrown together which were most connected, or which tended most to illustrate each other. General observations, or general facts should have been placed in that situation where

their connection with all the parts of the subject to which they relate might have been seen at once; and there should be no occasion to repeat them over and over as often as any particular occurs to which they refer. The author of this volume has little claim to applause on this important account. He takes up his subjects in a great measure by chance, or according to any casual association; and seems not to have been so much master of his subject as to see clearly in what situation each particular would be most advantageously placed; where it would be best illustrated by what had gone before, and where it would serve most to illustrate what should follow.

In the next portion, which is little more than a history of the wars in Canada, it was hardly possible for the author to produce so much confusion. The subject was abundantly simple: and he had the benefit of the labours of all the English historians, of whose works the history of the wars in Canada made a necessary part. It is to be observed, however, that the history of these wars, like all the rest of the more recent part of the English history, has never yet been illustrated with any ability: and not a little remained to be done to set it in a brilliant light. In particular, the internal operations which were produced within the different states of America by these wars were very imperfectly known to the English historians, and deserved to be accurately investigated and recorded by the professed historian of the States. It was during these wars that the States first began to act in concert. By this union, and by the efforts they found themselves enabled to make, their views were changed. They began to think themselves of too much importance to be commanded and constrained by the mother country: and as she insisted most obstinately on the right of constraining them, the dispute between them soon came to extremity. The origin and progress of this spirit among the North American colonists; and the effect which the proceedings relative to the wars in Canada had in producing it, was the most curious and interesting inquiry connected with this part of the history. A native of the United States ought to be better qualified for making this inquiry than a Briton; and this important information was particularly to be expected in a history written by a North American. In this just expectation, however, the reader of the present "crude" performance is completely disappointed. The author has contented himself with giving a hasty, and careless repetition of the common facts detailed by the annalists of England. And with regard to the laborious researches of original documents, the nice and curious delineation of the progress of opinion, or the profound examination of political regulations and institutions, he has thought them beyond the limits either of his leisure or of his abilities; and so has obligingly left them to others. We could not help wondering to find an historian of the United States quoting Belsham's history of England, and the Annual Register as almost his only authorities with regard to the transactions in America during many years.

With regard to another circumstance we had a right to expect to find ample information in the present volume: we mean the domestic and social habits of the people of the United States, their predominant virtues and vices, and the particular causes in their situation from which these habits flow. For this inquiry too an American ought to be the best qualified. But in this, which may be called the moral part of history, the work before us is as deficient as we have represented it to be in the political. It is a mere chronicle of newspaper facts; and that very imperfectly digested. But were a chronicle of this kind ever so well digested, it is still but the skeleton of a history, without any of the life or soul. We do not recollect that it has ever been taken notice of by the moderns how accurately Livy has pointed out these two inquiries, which may be called the moral and political, as objects of history; and how strongly he has represented them as objects of by far the greatest importance. Having mentioned in the preface to his history of Rome certain common facts, and disputes, which he reckoned of inferior consequence, he says, "Sed hæc & his similia, utcunque animadversa aut existimata erunt, haud in magno equidem ponam discrimine." He then solicits attention to the moral and political inquiries: "Ad illa mihi pro se quisque acriter intendat animum; Quæ vita, qui mores fuerint,"—the moral part;—then the political,—"Per quos viros, quibusque artibus domi militiæque & partum & auctum imperium sit." It is curious that it is to the moral part that he chiefly solicits the attention of his reader in tracing the decline of the Roman state; "Labente deinde paulatim disciplina; velut desidentes primo mores sequatur animo, deinde ut magis magisque lapsi sint, tum ire ceperint precipites; donec ad hæc tempora quibus nec vitia nec remedia pati possumus perventum est."

We can hardly be surprised that in the multitude of would-be historians which recent transactions have produced, this moral part of the subject should have been neglected. This is by far the most difficult and delicate part of the duty of the real historian. This requires one of the rarest of human characters, a master in the science of human nature. This is what intitles the true historian to some of the highest honours of human genius. This is what ranks him among a different class of beings from the maker of the register book of common facts. It is by this alone that the register of these facts is rendered of any value. "Hoc," to use again the language of Livy, "hoc illud est præcipue in cognitione rerum salubre ac frugiferum."

We willingly transcribe the apology which the author has made for the imperfections of this volume. It may be some reason for not concluding rashly that he is a blockhead, but it can be no inducement to the public to spend their time in reading his book:

"For any inattention to composition an apology ought never to be necessary. A work of any importance ought never to be submitted to the public till it has been sufficiently revised and corrected. Yet the first part of the Life of General Washington goes into the world under circumstances which might bespeak, from candour, less severity of criticism than it will probably experience. The papers from which it has been compiled have been already stated to be immensely voluminous, and the public was already looking for the work before the writer was fixed on, and the documents from which it was composed placed in his hands.

The impatience since discovered, by many of the subscribers, has carried the following sheets to the press much more precipitately than the judgement of the author would have permitted him to part with them, and he cannot flatter himself that they are free from many defects which, on a re-perusal, will attract even his own observation."

We think it necessary to say very little with regard to the style of this volume. It is not barbarous; but it is just as far from elegant. It bears sufficient marks of haste and carelessness; but it is in general simple, and unaffected. We were pleased to find it so free from those new words with which our brethren on the other side of the Atlantic have thought proper to enrich the English language; and of which their conversation and letters are so full. We detected, however, some instances; as *influential*, &c.

The interesting part of this intended publication is yet to come. It is undoubtedly in the power of the friends of Washington to give a most valuable collection of materials to the world. If they give us, after raising our expectations as they have done, a garbled one, they will expose themselves to our hearty contempt.

After what we have said of this volume we do not think it necessary to load our pages with extracts.

M.

An Account of the Cape of Good Hope; containing an Historical View of its original Settlement by the Dutch, its Capture by the British in 1795, and the different Policy pursued there by the Dutch and British Governments. Also, a Sketch of its Geography, Productions, the Manners and Customs of its Inhabitants, &c. &c. with a View of the Commercial and Political Advantages which might be derived from its Possession by Great Britain. By Capt. Robert Percival. *4to.* 1*l.* 0*s.* *C. and R. Baldwin.*

The author of this performance has already acquired a considerable share of reputation in the literary world by his account of Ceylon. The extensive circulation of that work has caused his peculiar manner of writing to be pretty generally known; and the compliments which have been paid him by critical writers both at home and abroad, give a sufficient pledge that the performance possesses much both to please and interest. Captain Percival's peculiar talent lies in a happy observation of a number of circumstances, which escape either the superficial observer, or the traveller who has his head filled with theories, or with the speculations of a particular science. His accounts of a country are not spun out with disquisitions into remote periods, of which no authentic information remains; and from which, if there did, no use or entertainment could be derived. Nor is his narrative continually interrupted by tiresome reasonings and uncertain inferences. What he relates, he has seen with his own eyes; and his narrative proceeds in such a simple and unadorned manner, that his whole aim seems to be to make the reader acquainted with the facts he has procured, without arrogating to himself any praise beyond that of a faithful observer. This mode of writing travels is equally relished by the learned and the common reader: where a number of facts, curious and interesting in themselves, are presented in a rapid succession, we readily dispense with discussions, and the flourishes of what is called fine language.

So different is the method pursued by Capt. Percival, in his former work, from that usually pursued by our modern travellers, who contrive to spin out a few facts, by means of reflections and inferences, to a volume, that intelligent critics expressed some surprize to see so much matter comprehended in so little space. The present work is conducted on the same plan, and a rapid succession of facts presents the reader with some new piece of information in almost every page.

The inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope, are in some degree a new race to our countrymen. We have been accustomed to look upon the population of that colony, as divided into the Hottentots and the Dutch settlers: the manners of the former have been described by several travellers, and for those of the latter we have turned our eyes to the mother country. But the shades of difference which have been introduced between the Dutch colonists of the Cape of Good Hope, and their countrymen in Holland, by the influence of climate, condition of life, and various other circumstances, have been entirely overlooked. The light which Capt. Percival throws on this subject, is perhaps the most interesting part of his present performance. His talent for the observation of manners has deservedly met with peculiar commendation. He does not merely give those general and obvious circumstances, which appear as it were on the surface of a people, and enable one to form some idea of their national character. He leads you into the houses of the inhabitants, introduces you to their tables, their parties, their whole domestic arrangements; in short he brings you completely acquainted with the ordinary transactions of the people, and enables you from thence to form a complete idea both of their national and individual character. A few extracts taken almost at random from his description of the Dutch colonists at the Cape, will sufficiently exemplify these remarks:

"I have already noticed the fondness of the men for smoking tobacco; their whole soul seems indeed entirely given up to that habit. We all know how much it is the custom in Holland; but here it is carried to a still greater excess. The men rise early in the morning, and make their appearance in a loose robe and night-cap before their doors; then walk or sit in the porch for an hour or two with a pipe in their mouths, and a slave by their side holding a glass and a small decanter of gin, from which the master every now and then takes his soupkie or glass. Let an Englishman rise ever so early, he will see Mynheer sitting in his stoop or porch, or parading the front of his house in the manner I have described. There are many who get up two or three times in the night, to enjoy a pipe; and so much are they accustomed to this luxury that they cannot on any account dispense with it. About eight they dress, first smoking their quantum; after which they sit down to breakfast, which generally consists of a quantity of gross food, besides coffee, tea, and fruits of all kinds. They then smoke another pipe, and go about their mercantile concerns till about one o'clock, when dinner commences, which also consists of a quantity of gross and oily dressed meat, with fruit, &c. as a dessert. A more particular description of their tables I shall

give presently. When they have regaled themselves another hour with their darling pipe, they lie down to their nap, which continues till evening; they then rise, and perhaps take a walk or pay formal visits, but are always sure to smoke wherever they go. Coffee and gin succeed, accompanied with their pipe till about nine, when supper is introduced, and when that is finished, after another hour's fumigating, they retire to bed, gorged with heavy food, and perhaps destined to spend the remainder of the night with all the horrors arising from indigestion. A continual round of this mode of passing their time sums up the existence of the Dutch colonists of Cape Town, exhibiting a most lamentable picture of laziness and indolent stupidity. As their education is very limited, refined and polished manners, or any extent of knowledge are not to be expected amongst them. The public schools at the Cape are few; and education never goes beyond a little writing and accompts, merely to qualify them for trade, and to enable them to hold places in the offices of the East India Company."

"The Dutch keep early hours, breakfast at eight o'clock, dine about one, and sup at nine. At each of those meals they have boiled, broiled, and roasted meat. At breakfast, besides tea, coffee, and fruits of every kind which this country produces, a boiled leg of mutton, and perhaps a dish of stewed beef is introduced; but so very full of grease, that it disgusts those who are not accustomed to this gross food so early in the day. The tea produced at their tables is very indifferent, and is sweetened with coarse brown sugar. Every cup of tea is generally half-filled with flies, which are here extremely troublesome, particularly in the summer season. I would recommend to passengers from India, to bring their own tea and sugar on shore with them. The Dutch have it in their power to get excellent tea from China and the East Indies, yet they have always a very inferior sort. Coffee is much more used, and is tolerably good.

"At dinner and supper their tables are covered with large quantities of meat. The manner of dressing and cooking it is highly disgusting to an Englishman's palate, being so full of grease, so indifferently and dirtily dressed, and served up by their slave cooks. Though the meat may be good in itself, it is spoiled to us in the cooking, being soaked in stinking grease, or rank oily butter, or oil made from the fat of the sheep's tail. Roasted beef, mutton, venison, fowls, and every substantial dish, are sent to table in this manner. A goose swimming in oil is no uncommon dish; or a piece of veal, roasted to rags, and covered with rancid butter turned into oil, with which the meat, when it gets cold, is quite incrusted. The fowls, which are indeed large and excellent, are also spoiled in the dressing. A leg of boiled mutton, which is a standing dish at all their meals, constitutes almost the only meat that an Englishman could eat. This being served up without grease, was my constant dish during my residence here."

"The room they reserve for meals in most houses is the hall, terminating at the end of the passage which leads in from the front doors, and is called the back-hall, from its being thrown so much towards the rear of the building. Those halls are generally lofty and spacious, well adapted to the heat of the climate in summer; though in the winter and cold months, I often wished they had occupied one of the sitting rooms adjoining, as they have no fire-places in any of their rooms, and stoves being sparingly used, even in damp and cold weather.

"As soon as breakfast, dinner, or supper is announced on the table, the front doors are locked to prevent interruption, and to let people know they are at meals; if you walk through the streets at those hours, you will not see one Dutch house open. This is an invariable custom at the Cape. After the meat is cleared away, a dessert of fruit is placed on the table, consisting of every kind produced at the Cape, oranges, guavoes, pumpkins, melons, peaches, apricots, plums, cherries, strawberries, figs, green and dried walnuts, chesnuts, fresh pulled and dried almonds, raisins, grapes, &c.; all excellent, and extremely wholesome in this climate.

"As soon as the dessert commences, the Dutchmen call for their pipes, hats, and spitting vases; and smoke away with a solemnity and gravity that a stranger might imagine to be studied. They will at times sit smoking for a couple of hours with the most stupid composure, nor ever think of stirring, till they are inclined to take their afternoon's nap. This manner of proceeding would in England be thought rude and brutal, but it is the custom here, and indeed is of a piece with the rest of their manners. They prefer a pipe to either the dessert or a chearful glass; and the pleasures of conversation, from the time a Dutchman's pipe is put into his mouth, are with him altogether at an end. He never speaks a word afterwards, except to call to Africa, Januara, Februara, (the names they generally give their slaves,) for another pipe of tobacco. All the while they are smoking, they scarcely deign even to look around, seeming to be wrapt up in the most solemn and thoughtful dignity.

"A Dutchman's hat seems nailed to his head, excepting when the meat is on the table; he is hardly ever without it, even in company with ladies. The latter are certainly treated with very little ceremony. After the first salutation, I have observed of the Dutchmen that they are much more ceremonious towards each other than towards the women. A Dutchman's maxim is that the head is the proper place for the hat."

Several of these circumstances may appear too minute and trivial to those who always look for prominent and striking features in the description of manners. But the great and prominent characteristics of any people are few, and they are seldom so marked as to discriminate them from all other nations. It is in the minute detail of domestic economy, in a variety of circumstances, apparently trivial in themselves, but which strongly mark the usual bias of the human mind; it is in the observation of such objects as these, that a thorough knowledge of the peculiar distinguishing character of any people is to be found. The light which is thrown, in the performance before us, by such observations, on the dispositions and manners of the inhabitants of the Cape, must prove not only amusing to the general reader, and interesting to the philosopher, but also of much importance to the nation who shall possess its sovereignty. To ascertain the real state of a people is the first step towards taking proper measures for their improvement.

The policy pursued by the Dutch in respect to this colony, and the effects of that policy are pointed out with very considerable ability. A climate the most salubrious, and a soil capable of bringing forth almost any species of production, were rendered of little avail by the narrow and suspicious policy of the government, the extreme indolence of the colonists, and their brutal inhumanity to the native Hottentots. By pointing out the defects of the Dutch policy, and those circumstances which have hitherto prevented the improvement of the colony, our author discovers the best way of amending these errors should the Cape again fall into the hands of his countrymen. From the nature of the soil and climate, and from the ex-

periments already made, he attempts to prove that both sugar and wine might be produced in this colony, to an extent highly advantageous to the commerce and revenue of Great Britain. As the Cape wine, with the exception of Constantia, has been reckoned of a very bad quality, our author points out the causes which have rendered it so, and from thence very fairly infers that were these causes removed, the wine produced there might rival that of Europe. An extract from this very interesting part of the work, will furnish an example of the minuteness with which the author observed the circumstances passing under his eye:

"The Dutch have never arrived to any perfection in the art of making wine, or the rearing of vine shoots. As this subject appeared to me of very considerable importance, I bestowed some pains in collecting information with regard to it, and the observations I was enabled to make may be found not altogether uninteresting. The defects in the Cape wine proceed from the avarice of the planter on the one hand, and his extreme indolence on the other. His contracted disposition prevents him from ever foregoing a little present emolument for much greater acquisitions in prospect. Antipathy to laborious exertion, and a sordid desire of saving, combine to prevent the planters from allowing the grapes to be raised to any height from the ground by standards, as this would require more work and care in the management of them, and a greater expence of wood for supporting the shoots; though at the same time it is allowed that it would materially improve the quality of the grape besides adding considerably to the produce. It is indeed natural to suppose that the fruit, by growing so near the ground, imbibes many corrupting particles; nor can it be doubted that it is from the soil in which it grows that the grape derives that particular flavour peculiar to the wine made at the Cape of Good Hope. The Dutch planter also not content with the fruit itself, often mixes both leaves and stalks in the wine press to increase the quantity by the addition of their juice. The grapes are too often pulled before ripe from the fear of losing any by birds, insects, or other causes; nor is the wine allowed a sufficient time to purify itself by a proper fermentation, and to acquire a ripe and agreeable flavour, but is immediately from the press put into butts which are well caulked up with lime. A quantity of sulphur which at the same time is thrown into it, is all the further means employed for its purification. I have often perceived a sediment in the Cape wine, which when analized was found to be impregnated with sugar of lead and sulphureous particles. The Dutch allege that the dearness and scarcity of wood, with the violent winds that often prevail, will not allow them to suffer the grapes to grow higher, and that the juice from the leaves and stalks gives a greater zest to the wine. These arguments upon examination were considered by our countrymen as extremely futile, and not justified by experience. Since the English arrived in the settlement some farmers have at their suggestion considerably improved the quality of their wines, and have paid more attention to the planting and squeezing the grapes. Our countrymen indeed have it not in their power to become adepts in the making of wine, as that is not a species of produce granted to their climate; but good sense and activity soon find out remedies for defects in new situations; and the English at the Cape found themselves under the necessity of attending seriously to this article from the exorbitant prices which the merchants charged for European wines."

He goes on to state the probability from some experiments made by the English, that Cape wine might be made of the very first quality.

The descriptions of the natural productions of the colony are, like those in the account of the island of Ceylon, given altogether in common language, and without any attempt at scientific terms or arrangement. The circumstances related, indeed, shew not a little attention and sagacity of observation; and to the general reader the familiarity of the style will render them still more entertaining.

The geographical descriptions of the country are interspersed with anecdotes of the author's own journies to different places, an account of those productions for which each place is most remarkable, and observations on the improvements of which it is capable. In describing those parts from which an attack might be made on the colony, Captain P. takes an opportunity to shew his talents as a military man, and to point out what to him appears the most likely means to ensure success. That the British will readily succeed in such an attempt he does not for a moment doubt; and he endeavours to stimulate his countrymen to the undertaking, both by pointing out to them the advantages which may be derived from its possession to this nation, and the danger of allowing it to remain in the hands of the French and their allies. Besides many occasional observations, the concluding chapter is expressly devoted to this object. Here the author recapitulates and concentrates his reasonings to shew that the unhappiness of the colonists under their present government, would render the opposition to our forces extremely trivial: to prove that the colony in the hands of its present possessors must soon be rendered a dangerous engine against our Indian empire, and at all events afford the means of destroying in a great measure our Indian commerce. The internal produce of the colony, although at present unimportant from its management, might, he contends, be rendered an object of much consideration, and large supplies be derived from it of wine, sugar, tobacco, and indeed of any article which it might be found expedient to cultivate; for this genial climate refuses scarcely any thing to the industry of man. Still more important are the advantages to be derived from the Cape as a naval station, both in regard to the complete security it would afford to our eastern commerce, and the conveniencies to be derived from it by our vessels trading both to India and the South Seas. Yet perhaps even this advantage is surpassed by the effects which this station has in seasoning troops for the warm climates. From many undeniable facts, it is proved that a previous residence at the Cape has prevented all that wasting sickness and languor which universally attacks troops sent out directly from Europe to India. Such a benefit is inestimable; and the possession of the Cape might thus in a great measure do away the objections against our territories in the warm climates, from the fatality to which they subject so many thousands of our countrymen. The effects of the Cape climate are equally salutary in restoring the health of those debilitated by the heat of India; and the short distance would give to many a chance of prolonging their days, who are unable to support the long passage to Europe.

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Such are the principal features of the work before

us, and we have no doubt that those who read it will acknowledge it to contain much interesting and amusing information. The critic may indeed discover considerable defects in the arrangement, some needless repetitions, and several imperfections of style. These, with some minute details which might as well have been omitted, we should have pointed out, had they appeared in the work of an author who any-wise piqued himself upon his literary qualifications. Captain P. however, with proper candour, disclaims all such pretensions; he reminds us of the bustle which necessarily accompanies a military life, and of his being obliged to attend his military duties even while he holds the pen. He claims still more indulgence for this than his former work, as it was not written in an interval of peace, but undertaken and completed amidst unprecedented preparations for war. To the judgment of the public, we leave the validity of this excuse: for our own part, we shall be happy if others of our young officers will follow Captain P.'s example in communicating to the public their observations in the foreign countries which they visit; and we shall readily pardon their defects in literature, if they furnish us with an equal quantity of interesting information. †.

Notes of Opinions and Judgments delivered in different Courts by the Lord Chief Justice Wilmot. 4to. 1*l.* 1*s.* *Cadell and Davies.*

This collection consists of the judgments and opinions given in a variety of cases by the Right Hon. Sir John Eardly Wilmot, while he was Chief Justice of the Court of Common Pleas. These opinions were given on different occasions, and on different questions that arose in the Court of Chancery, of King's Bench, of Common Pleas, and in the Exchequer Chamber. They were never intended by the learned Judge himself for publication, and of course are in some instances imperfect. But as many of them were handed about in manuscript, and as a strong opinion was expressed of their value by the gentlemen of the profession, it was thought advisable, however few in number, to give them to the public.

Statute of Mortmain.—The first case which occurs was tried in the Court of Chancery, and the nature of it was this: By a Will dated the 20th of September, 1717, Sir George Downing, of Gamlingay, in the county of Cambridge, devised his estates to his cousin Jacob Garret Downing, and his children in tail male, and in default of such issue to the brothers of the said Jacob Garret Downing and their children in tail male, and so on to others. But if all these should die without issue, then the Will appointed the estates to be applied to the founding and maintaining a College at Cambridge, which was to be called Downing College, and directed a *Charter Royal* to be sued for and obtained for that purpose. It happened that all the persons who were to have the benefit of the Will died without issue. Sir Jacob Garret Downing, however, by a Will dated the 12th of August 1763, gave the estates to his wife, Lady Downing, and her heirs, and upon his death she entered into possession. As this was contrary to the Will of Sir George Downing, the University of Cambridge brought the affair before the Court of Chancery. It was finally heard before Lord Chancellor Camden, Sir Thomas Sewell Master of the Rolls, and Lord Chief Justice Wilmot, on the 17th of June, 1768. Lord Chief Justice Wilmot considered the case under three heads: 1st. Whether the devise to the College was illegal and void; 2dly. Whether, if not illegal and void, the trusts were of a nature to be assisted by a Court of Equity; and 3dly. Whether, supposing the trusts illegal and void, or of such a nature that the Court would not assist them, the Court would apply the estate to some other legal charity of the same kind (*ejusdem generis*). As to the 1st question, as the Will was made before the 9th of George the Second, with respect to alienations in Mortmain, the learned Judge considered it in the same light as if that statute had not existed, and after having at great length considered how the law stood previous to the 9th of George the Second, he concludes that there was nothing to make the devise for the College illegal or void. With regard to the 2d question, whether the Court ought to assist the intentions of the testator in this case, his Lordship after an examination of the discretionary power, and usual practice of the Court, and the nature of the thing itself, was of opinion that the Court ought to assume the powers of the trustees who were dead, and carry the testator's intentions into effect. With respect to the 3d question, whether, supposing the trust illegal and void, or such as the Court would not assist in carrying into effect, the Court would apply the estates to some object *ejusdem generis*, his Lordship was of opinion that the Court certainly might do so, and in support of this opinion stated many cases that had been decided in the affirmative, and also adverted to the practice of the Roman laws upon the same subject. The Master of the Rolls and the Lord Chancellor agreed with his Lordship, and the trusts were accordingly ordered to be carried into effect in case the King should grant the Royal Charter to incorporate the College.

Power of Jointuring.—The 2d case was also before the Court of Chancery, whilst the Great Seal was in Commission, and one of the Commissioners was Judge Wilmot. It was determined in Hilary Term, 1757. The case was this: Sir Edward Mansell, Bart. devised his estate to his son Edward Mansell, and in case of his dying without issue, to his four daughters. His son had led a profligate life, and therefore he appointed trustees, who *with their heirs* were to act for his children's interest, and without their consent, the son could not settle a jointure upon any woman whom he should marry. The object of the father was to prevent his marrying an improper woman. The trustees died, and the son married a woman of bad fame, and by will settled his estate upon her for her jointure. It was contended that this jointure was void, because the consent of the heirs of the trustees to the marriage had neither been asked nor given. Judge Wilmot stated three questions: 1st. Whether the testator intended that the check upon his son should die with the trustees, or remain with their heirs; 2dly. Whether if the latter was his intention, it can take place according to the rules of law; 3dly. Whether in case it cannot, a Court of Equity can give it effect. With

regard to the first question from the words of the will, and the evident object of the testator, the learned Judge was of opinion that the trust was extended to the heirs of the trustees. As to the second question, he saw no rules of law to controvert this intention. As to the third question, whether if the powers were by law to expire with the trustees, the Court could set them up again and give an extended effect to the will. The learned Judge was of opinion that it could, and Lady Mansell was accordingly ordered to deliver up the estate to the heir at law.

Securities given to a Servant.—The 3d case was also tried in Chancery and is entitled, "Bridgeman and Green." It appeared that Bridgeman, a gentleman of weak understanding had hired Green as a footman, who had insinuated himself into his confidence, persuaded him to live separate from his wife, and obtained from him bonds for 5000*l*. Bridgeman filed a bill for the recovery of this sum, and also for the recovery of a bond for 1000*l*. which he had given to *Lock*, an attorney who had drawn up the bonds. Green filed a cross bill, but Lock was not a party to it. The questions were, whether the servant had exercised an undue influence, and whether Lock was liable to pay a share of the expences of the cross bill to which he was not a party. From various circumstances Judge Wilmot was of opinion, that undue influence had been exercised, to which the attorney was accessory, and therefore the bonds are ordered to be cancelled, and Lock appointed to pay his share of the expence of the cross bill.

Writ of Habeas Corpus.—Upon the 2d reading of the Habeas Corpus Bill, 1758, the Judges were appointed to consider some questions, which Judge Wilmot answered as follows: 1st. I am of opinion that in cases not within the act of the 31st Car. II. writs of Habeas Corpus *ad subjiciendum* by the law as it now stands ought not to issue of course, but upon probable cause verified by affidavit. 2dly. I am of opinion that in cases as above, writs of this kind may issue in the vacation by *fiat* from a judge of the King's Bench, returnable before himself.

The 3d question refers to some points in the bill which was afterwards rejected.

4th and 5th. I am of opinion that before the Habeas Corpus Act of Car. II. the Judges of the King's Bench were in the habit of issuing such writs in the vacation though the practice then depending on common law was unsettled, and I also think that the Judges were not bound to grant them upon demand, but upon a case made out.

6th. The Judges cannot always make writs returnable "immediate" in the vacation, as the refusal to obey is punished by an attachment for Contempt which can only issue in term time.

7th. The party has no remedy at law by action or otherwise against the Judge for refusing the writ. This refusal stands on the same ground as any other breach of duty.

8th. When the Court issues a writ returnable "immediate" and the party refuses to comply, the Court can at common law grant a rule for an attachment upon affidavit of service.

9th. The provisions of the act of Char. II. do not extend to men improperly and illegally impressed, nor to any case of detainer, except in criminal matters.

10. The Judges are not so bound by the facts on the return, but they can discharge the person brought before them in case the return be false upon clear proof, *i. e.* upon the verdict of a Jury.

The most important points established by the other cases, are, that no fine can attach upon a Dissenter for not serving in the office of Sheriff of London. That the nearest of kin to the founder of a College shall be preferred for fellowships, if so directed by the founder, without any limitation of degree, unless such limitation has been made by the founder; that an ordinary riot is not within the exception relative to civil commotions mentioned in policies of insurance; and that a *deed* given by one party to marry another, or be subject to a penalty, when there is no consideration on one side is void in law.

The opinions here given certainly do the highest honour to the learned Judge who delivered them, both on account of the perspicuity of the reasons on which these opinions are founded, and also for the laborious research which was necessary in order to ascertain the points of law in many cases. The labour both of Judges and Counsel is indeed immense when we consider the heterogeneous mass of the English law; when we consider the multitude of statutes that have fallen into desuetude, but are still unrepealed, and the endless search that is frequently requisite for cases and decisions. The inconvenience indeed of these unrepealed statutes have been felt so severely, that the attention of the legislature has in some degree been turned to the subject. It may truly be called a source of most "glorious uncertainty," for it not unfrequently happens, that after a plaintiff has obtained a verdict and thinks himself secure, the counsel on the other side comes next day into court with some musty folio in his hand, containing old statutes long since forgotten, which shew that the plaintiff's claim is illegal, or that he has been deficient in some point of form, or has brought his action in the wrong court. In Scotland unless there has been some proceedings on a statute within 40 years, it is virtually repealed by falling into desuetude; but in England a statute is for ever in force till repealed by an act of the legislature. The inconvenience resulting from this circumstance, the opening which it gives for trick and chicanery has been pretty well shewn in the late prosecutions against the Clergy for non-residence. Instead of diminishing, the inconvenience is perhaps continually increasing. New statutes are constantly passing which bear upon others long since enacted, so that it often becomes matter of doubt whether a crime is to be punished according to the terms of a milder or a severer statute.* The evil it is likely will go on increasing till it is found intolerable, and a revision must take place similar to that which took place in the Roman law previous to the formation of the Justinian Code. In the mean time, however, he who concentrates the cases and decisions which settle several points of law, confers a material benefit upon the profession and the public.

* See the case of Astlet, argued in the Exchequer Chamber.

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and in this point of view the work before us is intitled to a very considerable share of approbation. H.

An Account of the Native Africans in the Neighbourhood of Sierra Leone: to which is added, An Account of the present State of Medicine among them. By Thomas Winterbottom, *M.D. Physician to the Colony of Sierra Leone. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 645. with Plates. Hatchard.*

As the author of this work seems aware that it will be found to add little to our knowledge of Africa, we shall not be so fastidious as to urge the common objections on the score of originality. On the contrary, we think, that if he has not contributed much new matter, he has made a very important use of previous information; and has illustrated, confirmed, or refuted the accounts of former travellers with much acuteness and delicacy. For a book to give correct ideas of the native Africans in the neighbourhood of Sierra Leone, in a succinct and pleasing manner, we know no work preferable to the present, or that is more likely to afford that mixture of amusement and information which the public usually, and perhaps not unreasonably expects from intelligent navigators and travellers.

The first volume is wholly Statistic, and embraces every thing necessary to be known respecting the geography, natural phenomena, and artificial improvements of the country. This is followed by a description of the manners and customs of the natives, to which the author appears to have paid particular attention, and to have successfully compared his experience with that of other travellers. For the reasons already stated, we shall not extract any part of this narrative, but as we are reluctant to part with our author without that compliment, we shall borrow his sentiments on a subject which at present is peculiarly interesting, and likely to be again discussed in our senate:

"Various opinions have been formed respecting the rank which the African holds in the scale of creation, and many attempts have been made to depreciate his claim to the dignity of man. Owing to the resemblance which the oran outang is said to bear to the human species, and perhaps from a wish to overturn the only rational and satisfactory account we have of the creation, some writers of eminence have asserted that man originally walked upon four feet, and was in fact the same with the oran outang. There is reason, however, to suspect the accuracy of the figures which we possess of the oran outang; and it seems probable that it is indebted for much of its human appearance to the complaisance of painters. Professor Ludwig, in his excellent work, asserts, that the representations of the oran outang, by Tyson, Edwards, Daubenton, and Allemand, are defective and even imaginary. Baron von Wurmb also positively declares, since the time that Bontius resided at Batavia, about the middle of the last century, an oran outang, such as is represented by him, has never been seen there, or in any of the neighbouring countries. The oldest and most experienced Javanese, he continues, know no other oran outang but such as are perfect apes; and in the Malay language they distinguish only two species of apes without tails, which Buffon has classed under the titles pongos and jockos. These circumstances appear to have misled naturalists, who have been led still farther astray by their anxiety to trace every link of the chain with which nature is supposed to connect her works. In support of this strange opinion, and agreeable to the spirit of systematizing which generally prevails, the African has been pointed out as the connecting link between the homo sapiens, and his supposed progenitor the oran outang. The learned and accurate Professor Soemmering has, with much anatomical skill, compared the organization of the African with that of the European, and has pointed out several circumstances in which they differ; though some of these are of so trifling a nature, that they would probably have escaped a less accurate and intelligent observer. At the same time it must be remarked, that the observations have been drawn from too few subjects, and many of the deviations, upon which much stress is laid, are such as occur occasionally in the dissection of European bodies. In justice to Professor Soemmering it ought to be observed, that in prosecuting this comparative inquiry he attended solely to the appearances as they presented themselves, without having been biassed on instituting his observations by any preconceived theory. He therefore does not hesitate to consider them as brethren entitled to an interchange of good offices, and moreover adds, that many of the blacks surpass their brothers the whites, as well in understanding as in the fineness of their shape. It is curious to observe into what a variety of forms authors have endeavoured to diversify the human species, supposing no doubt that Nature loved to indulge her fondness for variety in producing races of men according to their distorted fancies. Thus Pliny, in his learned and invaluable history, says, "in quadam convalle magna Imai Montis, regio est, quæ vocatur Aberimon, in qua silvestres vivunt homines, aversis post crura plantis, eximiæ velocitatis, passim cum feris vagantes," vii. 2. For some further amusing caricatures see the same chapter. A modern author retails this same fable, and speaks of a nation in Guiana "qui naissaient avec le devant des pieds en arriere, de sorte qu'en marchant sur leurs traces on s'eloignait d'eux." Voyage à la Guiane. All these opinions may be finally answered in the words of an elegant author, who observes, that "of all animals, the differences between mankind is the smallest. Of the lower races of creatures the changes are so great as often entirely to disguise the natural animal, and to distort or to disfigure its shape. But the chief differences in man are rather taken from the tincture of his skin than the variety of his figure; and in all climates he presents his erect deportment and the marked superiority of his form."

This subject is pursued by our author in the subsequent chapter, but at too great length for our purpose. He appears to have read and studied with great care the opinions of naturalists, and philosophers, and if the result of such researches shall at length be to open our eyes to the *inhumanity* of the Slave trade, they will not have been made in vain. Of its *impolicy*, we believe, all are now convinced by sad experience, or if any doubts remain, they are likely to be removed very soon.

The second volume of Dr. Winterbottom's work contains much original matter, but as it relates entirely to the state of medicine, and the cure of diseases; we may be excused, if we dismiss it in general terms as a treatise of great importance to practitioners who may visit Africa.

This volume contains likewise an Appendix of four interesting and judicious papers, viz. An account of circumcision as it is practised on the windward coast of Africa—An account of the African Bark—Remarks suggested by the perusal of Mr. White's work on the regular gradation of Man—and Remarks of Professor Blumenbach upon Negroes. The en-

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gravings in illustration of the historical part are an excellent map of the coast—chart of the River Sierra Leone—A view of the colony drawn by Bowles, general of the Creek nation—A negro climbing a palm tree—The game of palm nuts—Nests of the larger Termites—and of the smaller—and a representation of the insects. These are neatly engraved, and from the judgment displayed by the author in his observations, we presume, accurately. R.

Observations on the Disease called the Plague, the Dysentery, the Opthalmy of Egypt, and on the Means of Prevention; &c. By P. Assalini, M.D. one of the Chief Surgeons of the Consular Guards. Translated from the French, by Adam Neale, *of the University of Edinburgh, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons of that City.* 4*s. J. Mawman.* 1804.

As scarcely any evil arises in the universe without some concomitant benefit, the irruption of the French into Egypt, while it brought so many calamities on the inhabitants of that country, has at the same time contributed not a little to point out the means of freeing them from a calamity under which they have long groaned. The prevalence of pestilential distempers in Egypt and Syria, countries which in ancient times were entirely free from these scourges, has been accounted for in various ways. At every place where it has broken out, it has long been agreed that it was imported from some other quarter, but which is to be considered as its original seat has never been determined. It has been universally supposed to be propagated by contagion, and the belief has been no less general of its being utterly fatal: the Turks when attacked with it concluded that their doom was already decreed; and the Christians, deserted by their trembling friends, supposed it in vain to struggle with a disease against which no remedy was effectual.

The skill of the French surgeons has greatly tended to remove some of these desponding prejudices. By many cures they have proved that the Plague is not a disease which baffles all the powers of medicine; and they have succeeded in showing, that it may both be prevented and rendered mild in its progress. *M. Assalini*, one of these surgeons, has published this treatise for the express purpose of diminishing the terrible apprehensions which have hitherto been entertained of the Plague. These very apprehensions he considers as one of the chief predisposing causes to this malady; and certainly if we believe his reasonings to be conclusive, the performance before us, by greatly diminishing our fears, must of itself be looked upon as a preservative against the plague. He looks upon the disease with which the French troops were attacked in Egypt and Syria, and which from the accompanying buboes, fever, &c. bore the strongest analogy to the plague, as capable of being cured with a considerable degree of facility, if taken in time, and obviated by proper remedies. He looks upon it as epidemic, and adduces many arguments and examples to prove that it is not contagious, and that the freest intercourse will not communicate it unless a person be predisposed for its reception. Full, plethoric, lax habits he considers as in the utmost danger of being attacked, and falling victims to it; while persons of dry and bilious habits may walk in safety in the midst of the supposed contagion, and yet either entirely escape it, or be in a very slight degree affected. According to him therefore, the propagation of the plague depends entirely on local causes, and the predisposition of the body. The vapours arising from the stagnated waters of Egypt, the pools and thick groves of Syria he considers as furnishing the pestilential matter which operates on predisposed bodies; and he looks upon the effects of this matter as capable of being avoided by removal to a place where these vapours do not prevail. The direct conclusion from these opinions, which he strengthens by many facts, is that the plague, or the disease which invaded the French army, is not contagious, that it cannot be transported from one place to another, and that consequently the precautions of shutting up houses, of employing quarantine, &c. are useless sacrifices to our fears. He rather thinks that the precaution commonly employed by the Christians in Syria, that of seclusion with their families, by preventing them from enjoying the free air and exercise, tends along with their apprehensions to weaken their bodies, and consequently to increase their predisposition to the disease.

Whatever be the validity of these observations, and however we may hesitate to adopt conclusions so much in opposition to received opinions, yet certainly they are extremely interesting to mankind, and deserve the most serious investigation. To this country it is become an object of the first importance, to ascertain the extent of the dangers which are to be apprehended from the climate of Egypt, as we may have again to check in this quarter, the inordinate ambition of our enemy.

Besides his observations on the plague, M. Assalini also treats of the dysentery and opthalmy of Egypt, diseases for the production of which he also accounts from the nature of the climate. He likewise has some remarks on the yellow fever of Cadiz, which he also considers as altogether epidemic, and not to be propagated by contagion. He has in addition given a plan of an hospital for the reception of those affected with epidemic and contagious diseases, which is worthy of attention.

The narrative is throughout perspicuous and entertaining. The affectation of technical terms is almost completely banished; and the work may be perused by the general reader without the risque of being perpetually annoyed and obstructed by the peculiar jargon of the faculty. This is a circumstance in which the French medical writers have obtained a great superiority.

The exertions of the translator ought not to pass without particular commendation. Assalini, being by birth an Italian, writes French as a foreign language. His style is consequently neither pure nor perspicuous: several Italianisms, remote from the French idiom, occur, and the translator has, by a diligent consideration of the context, to explain passages which would appear obscure even to a Frenchman. Mr. Neale has not only surmounted these obstacles, but has rendered bad French into very neat and correct

English. What we said of the perspicuity of the narrative, refers to it in the English dress; and this is one of the few instances in which a translation evidently surpasses the original. Φ.

The Grampians Desolate; a Poem. By Alexander Campbell, 8vo. 10*s.* 6*d.* *Vernor and Hood.*

The desolation of the Grampians, since the introduction of the sheep-pasturing system, the emigration of the people whose affection for their native hills has become proverbial, and the misery of the few that remain, might furnish a subject worthy of the attention of the most eminent poet. Mr. Campbell's patriotic fervor, which led him to attempt this poem, is to be commended, but his poetical talents are very far from being equal to the subject. The author must indeed have formed a singular idea of the art of poetry, if he thought that in the present instance, he had applied its rules with *energy*, *judgment* and *taste*. He had learnt from some eminent writers, that the great objects of poetry were "to move, to charm, to elevate the soul; to give a clear and perfect idea of the subject proposed, and to communicate pleasure by lively and beautiful images." But though he read, he did not understand, for in all these respects his poem will be found sadly deficient. With regard to charming, moving, and elevating the soul, we confess that we could not find a passage where such a thing appeared to be attempted. There is indeed a translation of Malvina's dream, that might certainly have at least the effect of charming and moving the soul, had not the author taken care to keep the spirit of the original entirely out of view by a tame, weak, and groveling versification. Now whether the author has been more successful in giving a perfect idea of the subjects of which he treats, will appear from the following specimens. But in the first place it is necessary to explain, that Mr. Campbell appears to have closely imitated the "Farmer's Boy" in his arrangement of his subject, and in the materials of which his work is composed. Goldsmith's Deserted Village seems to have suggested the title, but it turns out in fact that the poem is much more employed upon the Grampians *peopled* than upon the Grampians *desolate*. There are indeed a few allusions to this desolation, but the poem is chiefly employed about the sports, superstitions, and various occupations of the highlanders, during the different seasons of the year. One is tempted to think that in this arrangement the author intended to unite all the excellencies of Virgil's *Georgics*, *The Farmer's Boy*, Goldsmith's *Deserted Village*, and Burn's *Hallow E'en*. If this was his idea, it is scarcely necessary to mention his failure. But to return to our author's perspicuity in the subjects of which he treats, and which he himself has quoted as one of the essentials of good poetry. In the course of the poem he has occasion to speak of the American war, and proceeds thus:

"War's rude emotions soon pervert the mind
And all its *direful duties* deep combined
To deeds of horror reconcile the soul;—
Man thus transformed soon loses mild controul;
Whatever service destined to pursue
He fearless faces like a Roman true."

That war is attended by many direful duties no one can deny, but why man should therefore lose all controul over himself we know not. It is however still more difficult to discover why a man should lose all controul over himself, because he faces danger like a true Roman. But let us take another instance:

"Mark well, ye Senators of sterling sense,
Our *home-resources* are in truth immense!—
To rear the firstlings of the fruitful fold,
To fertilize the glebe, the plough to hold,
The sounding scythe to wield with mighty sweep
Along the winding stream or verdant steep,
To store with care on hill, in narrow vale,
The milky produce of the flowing pail;
To sort the fleece—the warp and woof prepare,
And ply the loom with diligence and care;
To heave the fish-net, sink the baited lure,
Anon the finny tribes to thus secure;
To reap the *marine harvest* of the shore,
And change to *soda* all the precious store:"—

The reader may perhaps be apt to stare a little at "wielding the scythe along a stream of water," and will venture to conclude that the produce of Hay cannot be great. However, it may be allowed that it requires no great stretch of imagination to find out that the author meant "along the margin or banks of a winding stream." But granting him in this instance, the privilege of the *licentia vatum*, the source of so much obscurity, which has swelled the mighty volumes of unwearied commentators, what shall we say to the next two lines:

"To store with care on hill, in narrow vale,
The milky produce of the flowing pail;"

One readily enough imagines that the author, adopting an ingenious mode of filling up a line by that round about way of expression which has been of such ample service to both the poetical and prose writers of the present day, meant nothing more by "the milky produce of the flowing pail," than plain *milk*. But here a difficulty occurs with him who wishes to understand what he reads, when he begins to consider how it was possible for milk to overflow the pail in such quantities as to be stored up in the vallies and on the tops of the hills. However after long meditation, perhaps the reader's pains may be rewarded by a faint glimmering of light, that the *produce of the pail* consists of *cows* and *sheep*.

But perhaps the author, as he has somewhat failed in reducing to practice two of his rules, may be more successful in the third, which is, that it is one of the essential objects of poetry to please by beautiful images. It is usual in some parts of the Highlands for the people to assemble at a certain season of each year to play a game which they call *Shinty*, for a prize which is generally a cask of whisky. Every man has a wooden club with which a ball is struck sometimes to a prodigious distance. To send the ball home is the object of each party in the game, and as any means for this purpose are allowable, the contest is not often finished without some bloodshed, which, however, is seldom attended with any serious consequences. Let us see then the notable comparison by which a game of this sort is brought before us:

"As when in ire, contentious kites and crows,
High pois'd on wing, from chattering come to blows,

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Sublime they mingling wheel from hill to hill,
And caw and scream, and whet the beak and bill—
'Tis horrid uproar all!—while crow meets kite,
Lo, how they tug and thwack, and peck and smite!"

Now the *cawing* and *screaming*, tugging and pecking of kites and crows, convey to us no very sublime idea of the *Shinty*-players, but upon turning to the table of contents it there appears that the author intended to give a ludicrous description of this scene. The reader will no doubt be polite enough to take it upon his word, but unless he happens to turn to the table of contents, he can never find out that the author had any intention of being witty. But perhaps he will succeed better in another effort, and here follows another example:

"Ere peep of day the sturdy mountain swain
Awakes the reapers of the narrow plain;
The pipe's shrill chaunter peals aloud th' alarm,
And seems to say, 'haste to the field—arm! arm!'
Each merry-hearted lad, and cheerful maid
Obeys the signal—grasps the shining blade:
A bloodless battle rages o'er the field,
And countless thousands of the foe soon yield;
Prone to the earth they fall—to rise again;
'Bind up the wounded,—and secure the slain!'—
On foot once more, and form'd in close array
(To grace the triumph of some future day),
The vanquish'd stand:—Nor is the combat done,
They briskly charge full oft ere yet the day be won!
The valiant leader of the conquering band,
Most general-like, behind them takes his stand;
And by him struts the bagpipe hero vain,
And sounds a loud, and yet a louder strain:
Now give the pipe due pause—a choral song
From wing to wing now runs the line along.
Each male and female warrior swells on high
Th' enlivening lay, as cheerly still they vie."

Unless the reader should fortunately catch a glimpse of the author's meaning by the word *reapers* in the second line, he will be apt from the description of merry-hearted lads and chearful maids going to battle together, to entertain a notion very different from that which it was intended to convey. However, in this battle with poor devoted *straw* and *corn* there is no great danger to the merry-hearted lad and chearful maid. The *foe* stand with great deliberation till they fall in countless thousands, very foolishly allowing themselves to be cut in pieces without thinking of making any resistance. The victory over these *men of straw* is rather inglorious, and one would be apt to pity the unresisting foe, were we not told by the author that the slain rise again and stand erect as usual. This is no doubt an idea taken from the celebrated *Kings of Brentford*, who, grieving that their deaths should be the cause of so much sorrow to a pitying audience, had the politeness, though stone dead, to rise up and dance a hornpipe to the great consolation of the weeping spectators. Why then should not the author's *men of straw* imitate such royal politeness especially since the example has been set by the foes of Alexander the Great, who politely took the trouble to rise three times from their graves, though some of them were even rotten, and to fight all their battles over again, merely for the purpose of affording him the pleasure of cutting them in pieces three several times. 'Tis pity, however, that these troops should not be taught to make some exertions for their own defence. Now the author, as he has made warriors of these Gentlemen of Straw, ought to turn drill serjeant, and teach them to fight their battles with some degree of courage and discipline.

The reader has, we presume, already a tolerable idea of the author's versification, as well as of his manner, but the following instances may render the idea still more complete:

"So when the day spring of prosperity
Ascends the horizon politic on high
Remotest regions of our Grampians hoar,
Shall be relumed—*to beam for evermore.*
The strong and secret springs of action *then*
Will urge and stimulate bold thinking men,
Who know the exhaustless treasures of the North,
And with a powerful arm will *heave them forth.*"

The following is almost worthy of entering the lists with the notable verse of Sternhold and Hopkins:

"With jetty crowberries your thirst *now* slake,
But, be aware how much of these you take:"—

This is scarcely complete without another line in the same style and manner which may be supplied as follows:

Or else they'll cause you in your guts to ache!

The following lines shew that the imagination of the poet (without meaning to profane the word) could fly at least as fast as—a shoal of herrings:

"They come! they come! the scaly hordes appear!
Lo there!—see yonder!—Now behold them here!"

It is certainly unfortunate for the author that he should have mistaken his talent so much. Had he communicated the information which is contained in the notes only, without attempting to shine in poetry, he would have done service to his country and credit to himself. These notes which occupy a great part of the volume, will be read with a great deal of interest, as they contain much curious and useful matter relative to the state of the highlands, and the manners and customs of the natives; but the poem is uniformly bad, without one passage that exhibits the least talent for poetical composition. The ardent patriotism with which the author appears to be animated deserves the highest praise, and it may be useful to apprise the public that the profits of the first edition are to be applied as a fund to assist the poor cultivators of waste land in any part of Great Britain. There is one thing more that perhaps may call for animadversion. The author seems fond, on some occasions, of applying passages of scripture in a light and irreverent manner. If he has any respect for himself, he will take care not to meddle with what he does not understand, for there is no more sense or talent in his manner of treating the scriptures, than in his poetry. D.

Poems on Various Subjects. By Mrs. Grant, Laggan, 8vo. 10s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

Of all the branches of literature, none is cultivated in this rhyming age with more zeal than poetry. The misfortune is, that this zeal is so little guided by discretion, and that most of our would-be poets, in their eagerness to publish what they call poems, forget to examine whether their talents are equal to their ambition. The cause of the temporary success of so

many silly publications of this sort may be, that most readers are as little capable of judging between empty verse and genuine poetry, as the authors themselves. Many are of opinion that poetry consists merely in having a certain number of syllables in a line, or in making the last word of every second line rhyme to the first. They find upon trial "that they can write something conformable to these rules, and therefore conclude that they are born to rival Homer and Milton, or perhaps to surpass them. Impressed with this notion they seize the pen and the common-place book, already filled with words that rhyme to each other. These words are dragged into the service in defiance of sense and reason; weak and unmeaning epithets supply the necessary quantity of intermediate syllables, and then behold a poem! But sometimes even this effort is too great, and therefore some have no hesitation in leaving out or adding syllables when hard pressed; and when proper rhymes cannot be procured, they are content with something that has a distant resemblance to it. Readers of sensibility, especially the ladies, are passionately fond of poetry, as it affords them an opportunity of displaying all the graces of tenderness and sentiment, and are ready to expire with delight at the sight of bad rhymes, measured lines, fine type, and beautiful paper. But why should not the fair ones write as well as read poetry? Who so well acquainted with love, the great subject of poetry, as they are, or who can paint it so charmingly? Every fair one in her own imagination becomes a Sappho; the daily prints and the magazines display the efforts of her muse; her dressing room is hung with her own poetic scraps, and every trunk-maker bears testimony to the multiplicity of her labours. Hence the prodigious multitude of poems that like swarms of summer insects rush continually into the world to supply the place of former ephemeral productions which fluttered about for their day, and then sunk for ever.

This poetical *mania* it appears has extended even to the farthest corners of the *ultima Thule*. The highlands of Scotland are indeed extremely favourable to the exertions of the genuine poet. The face of the country, the grandeur of its scenery, and the terrible sublimity of its storms, form a noble field for genius to cultivate. The songs of the bards accordingly, as might be expected, abound with descriptions that breathe all the fire of true poetry, though the language is often rude, and the sentiments sometimes extravagant and enthusiastic. But here too mere versifiers are not wanting, and bard*esses*, things formerly unknown in the highlands, have snatched the harp from the bards, and with feeble, awkward and unhallowed touch, have drawn languid and discordant tones from the strings whose sound was once so powerful and harmonious. The authoress of the poems before us, finding she could turn a rhyme tolerably, concluded that she was born a poetess, and to do her justice she really does appear to possess some taste for poetry. But she would furnish a proof, if other examples were wanting, that it is very possible to have the taste without the talent. To relish the beauties of good poetry is one thing, and to write good poetry is another. Many have really felt the superiority of Homer's poetry, but few could rise to an equality with him, and in the same manner many may be very sensible of the beauties of a good painting, whilst their utmost exertions would fail if they were to attempt to form one of equal merit. The first poem in the present collection, and the principal one, is that of "The Highlanders." The object of it is to describe the condition and manners of the natives of the Scotch highlands. The attempt is certainly worthy of commendation for its patriotism; but it is impossible not to wish that some abler pen had undertaken the task. The emigrations from the highlands have become alarmingly frequent, and the attention of the legislature has in some degree been directed to the means of applying a remedy. The plan which has been adopted, may indeed prevent emigration to such an extent as it formerly existed, but unfortunately it does not prevent those whom its operation keeps at home from being exposed to starvation. The *little* great of the highlands, are in general equally distinguished for their pride and their poverty. New luxuries have been introduced, and new wants have of course been created. The gentlemen are eager to maintain an appearance beyond their fortunes, and the devoted tenants must suffer for it. With their utmost exertions they find it impossible to pay a rent equal to that offered by the sheep-feeder, because the country is more fit for pasture than for agriculture. The consequence is obvious. The tenants exhausted by having paid a rack-rent for some time before, are driven by hundreds out of their possessions, which are occupied by one solitary sheep-feeder, while they and their families are left to emigrate, starve, or shift how they may. The landlords defend themselves against the charge of oppression, by the assertion that the highland tenants are invincibly idle, and utterly averse to exertion and improvement, and that therefore they must either turn them out or see their property destroyed. The charge is certainly not without some colour. The highlanders are like every rude people, with extreme difficulty induced to abandon the beaten track pointed out by long usage. But the success of many experiments, made by patriotic proprietors of land in the highlands, evinces that the difficulty is not insurmountable. However, this sort of conduct, since it cannot be defended on the ground of humanity, has been attempted to be justified upon the grounds of political expediency. Agriculture is certainly the most productive of all sorts of labour, but if the nature of a country be such that it becomes more valuable by being let out to pasture, than by being ploughed, that circumstance points out its proper use, and though this may press hard upon particular individuals, still the interest of the whole community is promoted. With regard to emigration, it is said that it ought to be unconfined, as the population of a state will be always equal to the provision it can afford. Besides though the population of the highlands is greatly diminished, and whole districts even left desolate, it does not therefore follow that the population of the country considered as a whole, is thereby lessened. Nay more, reasoning upon general principles it must even be increased, for if the produce of a piece of land is greater in proportion to the capital and labour bestowed upon it by one

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mode of arrangement than by another, the former mode is to be preferred, for the capital and labour that would otherwise be spent upon it, will find more profitable channels, and the quantity of provision on the whole, and consequently the population will be increased. The truth of the general principle is perhaps not to be disputed, but when we come to apply general rules, regard must always be had to particular circumstances. It will readily be granted that a hardy and virtuous peasantry is the greatest blessing that a state can possess. Suppose then the question to be, whether we are to have a smaller population, distinguished for courage, industry, virtue, health and domestic happiness, or a greater population debased by improper indulgences, vice and its consequent miseries? There are few but would answer, that the superiority of the latter in quantity, must be great indeed to make up for its deficiency, and its inferiority to the former in point of quality. The evil perhaps can only be cured by a strong and general exertion of patriotism in the highland proprietors themselves, or by some legislative interference. The former remedy is very hopeless, and the latter is perhaps too delicate to be put in practice effectually. The importance of the subject of the poem of The Highlanders, will we trust excuse our digression from the consideration of its merits. These need not detain us long. The subject is certainly well chosen, and might form the ground-work of a most beautiful poem in the hands of a person of genius. Here the authoress is unfortunately deficient. There are few faults in it so glaring as to excite risibility by their ridiculousness, but the whole perhaps is not therefore the less exceptionable. From beginning to end it proceeds in the same tame, languid, and feeble manner, so that it is impossible to read it with any sort of interest. There is not one passage that exhibits a spark of the poetic fire. The authoress appears to have taken some pains to rouze her Pegasus, but neither whipping nor spurring could make him mend his lazy and uniform pace. If such be the character of the principal poem, it promises but ill for the rest. The ballads that follow are however much more tolerable, perhaps on account of their being shorter. We then come to the poetical account of the journey of the authoress from Glasgow to Laggan, and this certainly, if not better poetry, is far more pleasant reading than her Highlanders; for on many occasions the reader will find himself tempted to laugh. But unfortunately for the authoress, he will laugh not *with* but *at* her. Among other notable discoveries in the course of this journal, we find that among the other delicacies with which the nymph of *Ogygia* had regaled Ulysses, *tea* and *chocolate* were not wanting. Where the authoress found this mentioned we know not, for we certainly do not recollect of either *tea* or *chocolate* in the writings of Homer, whose heroes seem to have preferred much more substantial food. The passage however, is as follows:

"Thus, when Ulysses came from sea,
To glad his dear Penelope,
The live-long night they spent discoursing
How Priam let the wooden horse in:
And how the Greeks came rushing out,
And fill'd old *Ilium* with the rout!
Or how the nymph, with artful wiles,
And tea, and chocolate, and smiles,
And every thing that could oblige ye,
Had try'd to keep him in Ogygia!
She tells him how the bold Eurymachus
Had strove to take her from Telemachus;
The suitors how she try'd to cheat,
By ravelling old Laertes' sheet;
And how, one night they found her busy,
And call'd her a deceitful hussy.
All this, and more, is laid before ye,
And makes a fine pathetic story;
Which will to latest times be heard,
Told by the blind old *Grecian* bard."

It is very possible that the authority of the authoress for this said *tea* and *chocolate*, though not mentioned, may be a good one. We learn both from the Iliad and Odyssey, that Ulysses was very fond of eating, and loved substantial food and a great quantity of it. This circumstance of the *tea* and *chocolate*, therefore, explains the cause of Ulysses leaving the island of *Ogygia* in a much more satisfactory manner than has hitherto been done. It was quite incredible that he should have left it merely from a desire to see his wife, and therefore it is not at all improbable that if the nymph had set before him the whole side of an ox roasted instead of her ill-judged *tea* and *chocolate*, she might have detained the hero as long as she pleased. But Ulysses could not bear the injustice done to his stomach, and this accounts for his departure from the island much better than the silly pretence of seeing his wife, which was the reason alleged for it, until our sagacious authoress set the subject in its true light.

The authoress it also appears, was by no means unacquainted with that grand and well-known part of the poetic art, denominated by the learned *Scriblerus*, *the art of sinking*. For instance

"The cavalry drawn out in force—
Black Paddy and the yellow horse."

Here the reader is taught to expect a troop of cavalry, consisting of some hundreds at least, but lo, in the next line he finds the whole to be no more than two horses, the one for our poetess, and the other for her husband!!—Nor is our authoress less able to make out a rhyme at a pinch, than excellent in the art of sinking. This the following lines will prove—

"Though I were willing, and as *able as*
That dainty Roman *Heliogabalus*
To talk of niceties and *rarities*
More dear to him than all life's *charities*, &c. &c."

"Where Faskilly's sweet meadows *flank ye*
The famous pass of *Killicranky*, &c. &c."

The following passage also affords a specimen of the authoress's rhyming talents:

"The yellow horse, right briskly driving,
At *Dalnacardoch* late arriving,
We held a council to debate
If it were best to travel late,
Or here to lodge, then rise up soon
And travel with the morning moon.
"My dear, my heart impatient yearns
'To see my home and kiss my *bairns*:
'I know they're under safe direction,
'Beneath fair Charlotte's kind protection:

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'Yet I'm in such a trepidation,
"I can't describe my perturbation."
'My dear, what signifies this flurry,
'Haste oftentimes is marr'd by hurry;
'The yellow horse, our fellow-creature,
'Though on a lower scale in nature,
'So long enjoying our protection,
'Has sure some title to affection;
'Then if you do not mean outright
'To kill him, sojourn here to-night.'
To council, Angus we admitted,
And to his casting vote submitted:
He prais'd the stables, corn, and hay,
And swore he would not stir till day.
Beside the cheerful blaze we sat,
And pass'd an hour in social chat:
Then wearied nature sought repose,
The friendly balm of human woes."

The introduction of Scotch words into English poetry seems to be a favourite practice with the authoress, but she ought to recollect that English readers are not always supposed to understand the meaning of *bairns*, *bonny* and so forth. We suspect also that she calumniates honest *Andrew* the servant when she makes him *swear* with such coolness in the presence of a clergyman and a lady. We believe the reader has had a tolerable specimen of the poetical talents of our authoress, and therefore we shall conclude the extracts with the following passage, which at least evinces a prudent resolution.

POSTSCRIPT.

"Jean, fetch that heap of tangled yarn,
And bring those stockings here to darn,
And get from Enne the dairy keys,
That I may go and count my cheese:
To every useful occupation,
Befitting of my place and station,
I'll henceforth dedicate my time,
And if again I write in rhyme,
'Twill be a shrewd severe lampoon
On country wives who fly to town,
And leave their dairy and relations,
To curl their hair, and follow fashions:
Or else an acrimonious satire
On matrons, who in spite of Nature,
With common useful duties quarrel,
To plant in vain the barren laurel!"

The principal poems that follow are those on the death of Sir Ralph Abercrombie, and on the death of Burns, on whom the authoress makes some remarks which display more zeal than ability. In point of merit, they are precisely equal to the rest of the book. The work is concluded with a translation from the Gaelic of two poems the one entitled, "Morduth" and the other "the aged bards wish." The beauty and energy of these in the original form the strongest contrast to this tame and feeble translation. The authoress has translated them into rhyme, a thing which was very ill-judged, for had she given us a faithful translation in prose, some conception might be formed of the nature and merits of the original poems. The spirit of the poem of "Morduth" is entirely lost. The translation of "The aged Bards wish" is considerably better, but still executed in a very inadequate manner. Upon the whole, that respect which we must refuse to the poetical talents of the authoress, we willingly grant to her patriotism. The notes contain some curious information, and may be read with advantage. D.

Travels of Young Candid, to the Country of El-Dorada, toward the end of the Eighteenth Century. Translated from the French. By J. Barton, L.M. 3 vols. 12mo.

This work, of the original of which the translator gives no account, is avowedly a continuation of Voltaire's Candid, or rather an imitation. Continuations and imitations are equally dangerous to him who makes the bold attempt, as most readers are apt to peruse both with an unavoidable degree of prepossession. The author of these Travels, however, has not much to apprehend from a comparison with the celebrated work of Voltaire, because he has not attempted a servile imitation, and because he has composed a work which may afford amusement by its intrinsic merits. He appears to have made no farther use of Voltaire than to borrow the names of Candid and Pangloss, and to place personages of their whimsical character in new situations. The purpose is to ridicule the atrocities, and absurd proceedings of the revolutionary heroes of France, and he has done this with the more boldness, because, we believe, it is at present fashionable in that country, to depress the credit of every form of government which does not terminate in the absolute sovereignty of one man. Such intentions are at present encouraged, but whether they may not go too far, our readers shall be enabled to judge for themselves by the following extract.

"How Pangloss and Martin were present at the sitting of the assembly of sages, and how they heard these wonderful things as must necessarily be expected.

"What is then this national assembly?" said Pangloss to Martin on their way.

"It is," replied the latter, "the quintessence of the sovereign people, and this assembly derives its name from a latin word, which signifies *rassemblement*."

As they drew very near the door, Pangloss, seized suddenly with a devout tremor, stopped to pronounce these words, advancing the right leg, and lifting up his arms towards Heaven, like one that was inspired:

"I salute thee," exclaimed he, "thou sanctuary of the laws, thou sacred temple of equity, in the bosom of which the sun of justice diffuses over the whole happy country of El Dorado beneficent rays, which reflects upon the rest of the blessed universe. Can our profane feet, our eyes and ears, presume to penetrate into thy sacred enclosure? are we sufficiently worthy to hear those revered sages, which thy bosom now encloses? shall we not expect that the impartial and veridical writers will become the interpreters of the august oracles which escape their lips? Ah! my dear Martin, are you not afraid, that like two new Prometheus's we shall be punished for having had the presumption not only to steal the fire from Heaven, but also to approach its divine altar?"

"Come along, come along," exclaimed Martin, "you speak in the language of a new-fangled epic poem: what, do not you think two philosophers carry their dignity always with them?" Finishing these words he pulled him by the arm, and both were very shortly at the tribune of the *rassemblement*.

"Every thing that Pangloss saw excited his admiration,

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Would not the world say, that we were sitting in a Roman senate? Observe whether those fathers of the people do not carry simplicity, contempt of dress and ostentation, farther than ever Cato, Brutus, and all the other pure republicans did. Confess that if we had met with a great party of these gentlemen in any other place but this, that we never should have divined by their looks more than negligée, that they were the representatives of the majesty of the people of El Dorado; but who does not know that, in this age more than ever, many things operate by contrarieties?"

"Hold your tongue, then," said Martin, "and listen to that orator who is going up to the tribune."

"He began by presenting the actual state of the forces and riches of the country of El Dorado. 'The whole of our troops,' said he, 'are in the best order possible, not a regiment but what is complete; for that very reason I move that all the citizens, without excepting either old men, children, peasants, or workmen, march to the frontiers. Our soldiers are in the finest order, nothing is wanting with regard to cloathing; it is that which makes it urgent to put in requisition all the merchandize of the country. We have a formidable cavalry; never were Centaurs so well mounted; according to that, it is of the first importance to seize upon every horse we can. We have arms and ammunition sufficient for a second siege of Troy, however, it would not be amiss to transform into guns and cannons every thing which is susceptible of it, and to establish workshops for ball and powder. We have taken from our enemies all their military funds, we have imposed in the conquered countries enormous contributions; after these considerations I move for a new emission of paper money. We cannot have too great a population, since it is the number of individuals that comprises the strength of the nation; consequently, I move again, that from five to six hundred individuals be daily put to death, without reckoning grand occasions which require more generosity and magnificence, when they may double or triple that number according to the good pleasure of the revolutionary committees, since we have destroyed all the arbitrary laws.'

"A second orator appeared at the tribune; he was the organ of the committee of finance. 'Never,' exclaimed he, 'was a country so flourishing as ours. Peru is only an Arabia Petrea in comparison with our soil; our funds are overflowing with gold, we are richer than any nation on the earth; in consequence of which,' added he, rubbing his hands, 'I move for a patriotic gift, or a little loan forced upon the totality of the inhabitants of El Dorado.'

"This orator was by no means so well received as the other; however, there immediately appeared a third, who spoke in an insulting manner of all the neighbouring governments, whom he called despotic and tyrannical before the ambassadors of the allied powers of El Dorado: when the tribunes recommenced exclaiming bravo and clapping their hands, without ever reflecting that, for the most polite people on the earth, it was acting indecorous to the extreme.

"The whole of the committee went up in the same manner alternately to the tribune, which, as it consisted of a great number, it lasted a considerable time. That of legislation had its turn; they proposed a dozen of decrees and laws, which, by the aid of a trivial ceremony invented to give speedily their advice, were expedited in the twinkling of an eye. They had nothing else to do, but to rise or remain seated, in order to say yes, or no. It must be with justice expected that Pangloss was astonished at this mode of discussion.

"'What a deal of time is saved!' exclaimed he; 'what an economy of eloquence! how much more convenient it is to move that part common to man and monkey, than to hold out reason! how wisely they have acted in suppressing counsellors, who gave their opinion from their wig, in order to substitute in their places sages, who give their opinion from their *behind*! How convenient this method would have been for the Lacedemonians, so covetous of words! How very wrong the people of El Dorado are, in calling themselves the imitators of the nations of antiquity, while they so eminently surpass them.'

"While the metaphysician was continuing the series of his exclamations, another orator rushed forward to the tribune, when it was seen by the silence which reigned all of a sudden in the house, that the latter was accustomed to be listened to. 'They reproach,' said he, 'the Eldoradian nation, for not believing either the existence of the Supreme Being, or the immortality of the soul; those are little *bagatelles*, which I must confess are not worth the trouble of mentioning; however, in fine, since certain feeble minded persons have had the folly of occupying themselves with those trifles, I wish for us to eternalize our memory this day by a *coup d'eclat*. I move then, to expedite this present session a brevet of immortality to the soul, and a certificate of existence to the Supreme Being.'

"At these words several of the members were seen to shake their heads and make grimaces. 'Brothers and friends,' replied the orator. 'I divine your meaning; however, be not uneasy, what we are going to do will interfere with nothing, my conduct shall prove it to you. In the mean time I beg you to withdraw for your opinions.'

"They conceived it was their duty to obey, when the proposition passed by the majority of several *fesses*.

"'Observe, notwithstanding,' said Martin to Pangloss, 'if the Supreme Being had created twenty posteriors less, perhaps his existence would have been compromised.'

"'That proves,' said Pangloss, 'that little causes produce great effects; consequently, it is for the best that man is endowed with *fesses*.'

"'But,' exclaimed suddenly a member, 'if we establish the existence of the Supreme Being, what shall we do with chance, with nature, and eternal sleep?' Sent back to the committee of philosophy, replied immediately several groups that Pangloss and Martin had remarked shrugging up their shoulders during a part of the discussions.

"'In order,' replied the former orator, 'that strangers may not raise a doubt concerning our profession of faith, I move that the brevet and certificate we have just given, be posted in the public streets; that will be much more easy and less restraining than to proclaim them ourselves by our actions.' Bravo, exclaimed the major part of the members, and even of the El Doradians who were in the tribunes.

"At the end of this solemn deliberation arose several discussions upon other objects; they grew by degrees so warm, that every body speaking at once, it happened natural enough, that nobody was heard. In vain did the president agitate in every direction the little bell which he had in his hand; his efforts were useless; they continued bawling out in chorus.

"'Wonderful!' said Pangloss; 'how this proves that it is by the shock of opinions light springs up; we are going doubtless from the bosom of this uproar to see some grand truth disclosed. Let us wait yet a few moments, and we shall be convinced that it is for the best that men charged with the public affairs have good lungs. The president did not possess doubtless so much patience as the philosopher, for he put his hat on, which signified that all was finished. Every one, after his example, put his hat upon his head, except Pangloss, who placed his under his arm, and in the twinkling of an eye, the house was cleared.

"'I conceived,' said Pangloss, 'that this assembly was equal to the senate at Rome, but what has just occurred proves to me how much it has the ascendancy. The

Roman senate made kings, it went even so far as to make demi-gods of several of their emperors; but they never thought they had sufficient power to publish a brevet of existence to Jupiter, they would have been afraid of being fulminated.'

"'And they would have deserved it,' said Martin, taking a pinch of snuff."

It may be doubted whether much of this scene does not belong to the *good-natured* senate of the present autocrat, fully as much as to the creatures of Robespierre. If our readers, however, are amused by it, we can promise them more amusement of the same kind in these volumes, but it is our duty to add that in them, as in all productions of imagination from the French press, there are a few offences committed against delicacy. R.

FOREIGN.

Memorial Topographique et Militaire. N° 5. Paris.

We have already noticed the first four Numbers of this periodical work, and given our opinion as to its merits and defects. In the present Number we see nothing which requires additional remark in that respect; and shall therefore give only a short account of what is peculiar to it, in point of information.

The pretty long *avant-propos* is intended as an essay on the imperfect state of topographic language. The depot de la guerre "has remarked how unsettled, equivocal and contradictory are the terms hitherto employed in it, and how important it is, for descriptive memoirs especially, that they should be fixed, perspicuous, and free from any arbitrary and improper acceptation. Bourcet and some other military writers had already perceived this inconvenience, and endeavoured to remedy it by a list of definitions at the head of their memoirs. Their plan, however, was inadequate. We are yet unable to understand the true meaning of the words *chaine, contrefort, vallen, val, gorge, col, berge, plateau, courbe, &c. &c.*; and we consider as a great desideratum a work which should establish a clear nomenclature, not only for shapes and modifications of mountains, but for the course of rivers, and the irregularities in the sea-shores."

The avant-propos is followed by a record of the sittings of the commission appointed for rendering fixed and uniform the conventional signs used in topographical maps, plans and drawings. This record contains much valuable information on the several methods of horizontal projection, and on the various means of representing relief in maps, and cannot fail to be of great utility to military engineers and geographers.

Next follows an historical and systematic notice of geographical engraving, and then an essay on the shape and size of the various figures to be used in maps. For these, as well as for the subsequent two articles concerning geodesic operations, we refer to the work itself; as however useful to professional men, they would be little interesting to the generality of readers. Any person however, who chuses to look into the book, will be highly entertained by the 17 fine plates accompanying it, and representing sets of conventional signs for chorography, hydrography, mineralogy, armies and fleets. F. D.

Nouveau Dictionaire Historique, &c. par L. M. Chaudon et F. A. Landine, Huitieme édition, Revue, corrigée, et considerablement augmentée, à Lyon, 1804, 13 *vols.* 8*vo.*

We some time ago announced the present enlarged and improved edition of the valuable historical dictionary formerly ascribed to a society of literary men at Caen, and now acknowledged to be the production of a learned and indefatigable Ex-Benedictine, of the name of Chaudon. Our expectations of it have not been disappointed. Many new articles are added; and with regard to them the compiler seems to have taken great pains in collecting information from every quarter and from the best sources. Perhaps he has done more than was necessary; as many revolutionary characters have a place in it, which might have been excluded without the least detriment.

The greatest improvement which has been made, will be found in the volume exhibiting the chronological tables. Here we see for the first time, a satisfactory account of all the great states united to the crown of France, at different periods, and consequently a regular succession of the ancient Dukes of Burgundy, Normandy, Brittany and Lorrain; of the Counts of Toulouse and Provence; of the Dauphins, &c. We are also gratified with a chronological view of the most remarkable events in ancient and modern history, classed according to the several centuries in which they took place. None, however, but a Frenchman, will consider as important facts the introduction of newspapers in France by the physician Renaudot, in 1731; the first exhibition of paintings at the Louvre, in 1740; the foundation of the military school in 1751; the establishment of the penny-post, at Paris in 1760; the erection of the Hotel des Monnoies, in 1771; and the institution of the veterinary school at Alfort, in 1780! And not one in a thousand of the French themselves will ever admit that *the* most *fortunate circumstance in the year* 1800, *was the providential escape of the First Consul from the infernal machine*; or entertain any hopes that, under *this able chief, France will experience a wise government, wealth, learning,* and the most glorious *destinies.* F. D.

List of New Publications from June 1, *to June* 16, 1804.

Those marked thus (*) *are intended to be Reviewed at greater length.*

HISTORY, TRAVELS, BIOGRAPHY.

A Voyage of Discovery to the North Pacific Ocean. By William Robert Broughton, 4to. (*) 1l. 5s.

The History of Canada, from its first Discovery, comprehending an Account of the Original Establishment of the Colony of Louisiana. By George Heriot, Esq. 8vo. Vol. I. (*) 12s.

The History of Athens. By Sir William Young, Bart. F.A.S. the Third Edition, Corrected and Enlarged. royal 8vo. (*) 10s.

Travels in China, &c. &c. By John Barrow, Esq. 4to. (*) 2l. 12s. 6d.

A Tour through the British West Indies, in the Years 1802 and 1803, giving a particular Account of the Bahama Islands. By D. M'Kinnen, Esq. 5s.
This sketch is very superficial, and the author himself

does not appear to have considered it in any other point of view. It is not, however, entirely destitute of interest, and now and then observations are made on the soil, climate, productions and history of the British West India Islands, which are both new and important.

The History and Antiquities of the County of Surrey. By the late Rev. Owen Manning, S.S.B. vol. I. folio. (*) to Subscribers 4*l.* 4*s.*

The Scenery, Antiquities and Biography of South Wales. By Benjamin Heath Malkin, Esq. M.A. F.S.A. 4to. (*) 2*l.* 12*s.* 6*d.*

Letters written during a Tour in South Wales. By the Rev. I. Evans, B.A. Author of a Tour in North Wales. 8vo. (*) 8*s.*

An Account of the Life of James Beattie, L.L.D. By Alexander Bower, crown 8vo. (*) 5*s.*

POLITICS AND POLITICAL ECONOMY.

A Systematic View of the Formation, Discipline and Economy of Armies. By Robert Jackson, Esq. 4to. (*) 1*l.* 1*s.*

The Opportunity, or Reasons for an Immediate Alliance with the People of St. Domingo.—By the Author of the Crisis of the Sugar Colonies. 3*s.* 6*d.*

We recommend this pamphlet warmly to public attention. It is the production of a man of uncommon political sagacity, writing on a subject with which he is minutely acquainted. The object of the pamphlet is to recommend an alliance, not merely commercial, but political, between the black masters of St. Domingo and this country. Many advantages are represented as natural to arise from this measure; and many dangers from whatever different course can be pursued. One circumstance only is wanting to render his conclusions on this subject incontrovertible; complete proof that the negroes are capable of forming that valuable community which he represents, and of observing the stipulations of any treaty. Most authors, and among them Mr. Brougham, think the negroes, when left to themselves, incapable of any thing but savage occupations, indolence, cruelty, and treachery. We confess we never knew what proof there was of this. It is a most singular and suspicious circumstance that we have so little authentic and undisputed information respecting the character of the negroes. This takes all stability from our conclusions respecting West India affairs. We are fully persuaded that Mr. Brougham's estimate of the social state of the West Indian negroes, is inordinately too unfavourable. But we are inclined to think that the author of this pamphlet rather over-rates it. We believe, however, he is a great deal nearer to truth than Mr. Brougham.

Bonaparte and the French People under his Consulate. Translated from the German. 8vo. (*) 7*s.*

An Essay on the Political Relations between Russia and France. With Remarks by the Translator, H. F. Greville, Esq. 2*s.* 6*d.*

Some good observations are here made on the disordered state of Europe. Dangerous projects are ascribed to France. But the author draws his conclusions chiefly from imagination.

The Anti-Corsican; or, War of Liberty: A Series of Letters addressed to the People of the United Empire. 3*s.* 6*d.*

These common-place, declamatory things, fit only for the pages of a newspaper, did not deserve to be reprinted.

A Description of the Condition and Manners, as well as of the Moral and Political Character, Education, &c. of the Peasantry of Ireland. By Robert Bell, L.L.B. 2*s.*

The matter contained in this pamphlet first appeared in one of the weekly papers. An acquaintance with the manners and sentiments of the Irish peasants is a matter of such importance in a political point of view, that any well authenticated information on the subject must be valuable. The present work appears to have been written by a person who had an opportunity of examining the condition of the Irish peasants. The facts which he details are certainly not much in favour of his countrymen, though with a natural partiality he has endeavoured to exhibit them in the best possible light. The cause of the wretchedness of these peasants seems principally to arise from the ruinous system of *middlemen*; which is carried to such a pitch, that the cultivator has often six of these between himself and the proprietor of the soil. It would also appear from this pamphlet that they are or have been till lately almost wholly under the dominion of their priests. To put an end to this influence is certainly a great political object, and the most likely method to effect it is, if possible, to adopt some national plan for bettering the condition of the peasants, and having them well instructed. This would afford the best chance, if not of destroying, at least of weakening this influence so far that no danger could be apprehended from its operation. The pamphlet is upon the whole well-worthy of perusal.

POETRY.

Fables connected with Literature. Imitated from the Spanish of Don Tomas de Yriarte. By John Belfour, Esq. 7*s.* 6*d.*

These fables are remarkable neither for faults nor beauties. They are however held, we are told, in some degree of repute on the continent. But if this be the fact, it is probable that they have lost considerably by the translation They are still however well worthy of perusal. The observations on the origin, progress, and nature of Fable, prefixed to the work, are very valuable.

NOVELS.

Modern Literature. By Robert Bisset, L.L.D. 4 vols. 12mo. 16*s.*

From the title of this novel much might be expected, but whoever has raised his expectations to any great height will certainly find them disappointed. In that part of the work where the author touches upon the art of *book-making*, a partial representation is given, which we believe in some instances to be just, as he himself is a labourer in this vocation, and therefore very likely to be acquainted with the secret of this business. But even here as well as in the other parts of the work, the story is told in that listless, uninteresting manner, which precludes the possibility of commanding attention. There are some reflections however in the book, on the works of Godwin and his school, that are not destitute of merit. But upon the whole, the work is made up of dry detail and cannot be said to rise above the level of the generality of publications of this nature.

What You Please; or Memoirs of Modern Characters. 4 vols. 12mo. 16*s.*

This is a well-written and an entertaining novel. The author discovers a considerable acquaintance with the manners and foibles of different ranks in society, which he satirizes with a great deal of humour and spirit. In many instances the colouring is no doubt heightened, but the incidents on the whole are sufficiently probable, and some of them exact representations of what passes in real life. The

work is in general well executed, and contains nothing repugnant to good morals.

The Duchess of Valliere; the Mistress of Louis XIV. From the French of Madame De Genlis. 2 vols 12mo. 8*s*.

The public have been so long accustomed to admire the productions of *Madame de Genlis*, that her name prefixed to any work must ensure it a favourable reception. The present work is founded on fact, and the authoress has for the most part adhered to the evidence of history. We think, however, that the Duchess of la Valliere is here represented in much too favourable a point of view. The work is well worth perusal as it shews the influence which, in a profligate and despotic court, women of the most abandoned characters must retain, to the utter exclusion of merit from place and employment.

The Eve of San-Pietro: a Tale, 3 vols. 12mo. 10*s*. 6*d*.

This tale is written in a style and manner calculated to excite strong interest in the mind of the reader. The scene is in Italy, where ill-regulated government gives too much security to the projects of the assassin and the murderer, and where superstition procures credit to the most ridiculous stories. The authoress has availed herself of these circumstances, and has called to her aid the whole influence of monks, phantoms, ruined towers, rusty hinges, midnight assassination, and horrible dreams, with all the machinery of terror. The incidents, therefore, are often not very consistent with the modesty of nature, the style is not always correct, nor the sentiments uniformly suitable to the occasion supposed to produce them. But upon the whole the tale is distinguished by a very considerable energy both of thought and expression.

MISCELLANIES.

Two Essays: one on the Author's mode of executing rough Sketches; the other, on the Principles on which they are composed. By William Gilpin, M.A. 3*s*.

The genius and benevolence of the *Vicar of Boldre*, are already well known to the world. His writings on picturesque scenery and landscape painting have procured him the reputation of a man of taste: his moral and religious writings, so well calculated for the instruction of the young and ignorant, has gained him the far higher character of piety and active virtue. The present publication comes before the public with a view to cultivate a certain branch of the fine arts; the profits arising from its sale are to be devoted to the prosecution of a most benevolent plan. Mr. Gilpin observing that much idleness, dissipation, and dishonesty prevailed among the inhabitants of the parish of Boldre, resolved to attempt a radical cure of these vices by promoting the instruction of the young in the principles of morality and religion. For this purpose he founded a parish school, and hired a master and a mistress to conduct the education of twenty boys and twenty girls, the number he received into this establishment. The expences were defrayed by himself; but wishing to render the institution permanent without burdening his heirs, he sold several drawings and little picturesque MSS. of his own composition; and obtained from the sale about 1200*l*. which, being funded in the three per cents with some addition, produced about 84*l*. a year. This forms the fund for the permanent maintenance of the school of Boldre. But as the children are clothed as well as taught, and supplied with all necessary materials, the fund is not quite sufficient for all these purposes. To supply its deficiencies, the present essays are offered to sale, as well as some drawings which the author has lately made. "This is the last effort of my eyes," says the author, "and I am willing to hope may still be of some use." The little work before us consists of an account of the parish-school of Boldre, an essay on the mode in which the author executes his rough sketches, and another on the principles on which these sketches are composed. The plainness with which his ideas are expressed must render these essays of much value to those who wish to pursue this mode of sketching.

Literary Hours; or Sketches, Critical and Narrative. By Nathan Drake, M.D. Vol. 3. 8vo. (*) 9*s*.

The Fashionable World Displayed. By Thomas Christian, Esq. 12mo. 3*s*. 6*d*.

The fashionable world affords a rich field for the talents of the satirist, but it is only in the last stage of the existence of fashionable follies that they can be much restrained by the efforts of dulness. The ass would not have ventured to throw his heels in the lion's face, had he not known that he was dying. But fashionable folly is still in its vigour, and will require abler hands than the writer of this silly performance to check its career. The sorry conceit of describing the fashionable world in a geographical manner can only be equalled by the uniform dullness with which it is supported.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Of Hall's Imitations.

"*Juvat integros accedere fontes.*" LUCRET.

Having before observed how closely bishop Hall imitated Spenser in the choice of obsolete words, I have now to bring more solid proofs of his attachment to that celebrated poet. I charge him not with copying, for he entered too deeply into the spirit and sublimity of Spenser to commit actual plagiarism; he borrowed from Spenser as Spenser had frequently borrowed from others; securing to himself the sense and spirit of his author, without that close conformity of words which often gives an air of servility to strict imitation. It was thus that *Oldham* drew several passages in his satires from Hall. Nor is *Marston*, Hall's immediate antagonist, entirely free from suspicion. These several copies almost remind us of Shakspeare's well-known drinking Ode, which was itself a copy from the French. But let not the reader forget that coincidence might perhaps dictate that which here savours of resemblance. For with resemblance imitation has been too frequently confounded; and sometimes that which is thought to be imitated is in reality reflected; a secondary imitation from some original plagiary. But on this subject Mr. Hurd, (now the venerable bishop of Worcester,) has written with more than common efficacy. I have but one fault to find with him. At p. 233 of his essay on Poetical Imitation, he says, "that noble verse in the Essay on Criticism,

"For fools rush in where angels *dare not* tread."

"is certainly fashioned upon Shakspeare's

— "the world is grown so bad
That wrens make prey, where angels dare not perch."

But the true reading of Pope's line is,

"For fools rush in where angels *fear to* tread"

And of Shakspeare's

— "the world is grown so bad
"That wrens *may* prey, where *eagles* dare not perch." (A)

(A) I quote from the fourth (I believe the *last*) edition of Bishop Hurd's Horace. Cambr. 1766.

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This is an unusual specimen of literary cruelty; for the critic to exemplify a single position of his own, aims a deadly blow at the fancy of one writer, while he detracts from the common sense of another. I am inclined to think Mr. Hurd quoted from memory. Nor can I think that Pope copied Shakspeare; if he did, I can as easily show that Lord Lyttleton stole one of his brightest thoughts from bishop Hall. Hall in the second satire of the fifth book, has

" When the sad sky did shed so many a tear;"

And Lord Lyttleton, in one of his poems to a lady, has an allusion of the same nature. When writing of the mischievous effects of the evening dews, he observes

" They are tears of the sky for the loss of the sun."

But Hall was writing of a rainy and unfruitful season.

" Plenty and he died both in that same year
When the sad sky did shed so many a tear."

To return, I shall now present the reader with an extract or two from the satires of Hall, and add corresponding passages from Spenser. The second satire, when lamenting the fall of poesy, opens

" Whilom the sisters nine were vestal maides
" And held their Temple in the secret shades
" Of fair Parnassus"—
" There did they sit and do their holy deed
" That pleas'd both Heav'n and Earth. Till that of late
" *Whom should I fault? Or the most righteous fate*
" *Or Heav'n, or men, or fiends, or ought beside,*
" *That ever made that foul mischance betide?*
" *Some of the Sister's in securer shades*
" *Deflowered were.*"

So in the Tears of the Muses, l. 265, Spenser has represented Euterpe thus speaking of Ignorance:

" He arm'd with blindness and with boldness stout
" (For blind is bold) hath our fair light defaced
" And gathered unto him a ragged rout
" Of Fauns and Satyrs, hath our dwelling raced.
" *And our chaste bowers, in which all vertue reign'd*
" *With brutishness and beastly filth hath stain'd.*

Here we see Spenser's genius allowed fauns and satyrs to corrupt the Muses' vestal purity; but the unabated exactness of Satire refused so bold a flight to Hall:

" Whom should I fault? or the most righteous fate
" Or Heav'n, or men, or fiends, or ought beside."

A few lines after, Hall adds:

" And Pyrene sweet turn'd to a poison'd head
" Of *coal-black puddle* whose infectious stain
" Corrupteth all the lowly fruit-ful plain."

And Euterpe, l. 271. continues—

" The sacred springs of horse-foot Helicon
So oft bedewed with our learned layes
And speaking streames of pure Castalion
The famous witness of our wonted praise:
They trampled have with their foul footings tread
And like to troubled puddles have them made."

Again, in the seventh Satire of the fourth book, when reprehending the falshood and corruption of the Romish church, Hall says:

" Certes not all the world such matter wist
As are the seven hills, for a Satyrist."

And in the second stanza of the Ruins of Rome, Spenser has two lines of a similar texture:

" But I will sing above all monuments
Seven Roman hills the world's seven wonderments."

Indeed the whole Satire bears a close resemblance to Spenser's Poem.

I once thought Hall's notion of the signs of the Zodiac, in Sat. vii. of B. ii:

" Twelve goodly Innes they are, with twelve fayre signs
Ever well tended by our star divines.
Everie man's head innes at the horned Ramme,
The whiles the necke the Blacke-Bulls guest became, &c.

had Spenser's 11th Eclogue for November in view:

" But now sad winter welked hath the day
And Phœbus weary of his yerely taske
Ystablish't hath his steeds in lowely lay
And *taken up his Inne* in fishes haske."

But I have since met with several instances of this conceit in the works of other contemporary poets. So Browne in Britannia's Pastorals:

" Now had the glorious Sunne *tane up his Inne*
" And all the lamps of heav'n enlighten'd bin."

Again B. ii. song 5:

—" and twice had Phœbus bin
" In horned Aries *taking up his Inne.*"

Such are the seeming parallels of Hall and Spenser. I now turn to view him when applying the precepts and the imagery of antient satire with classical propriety.—A few instances have been already given in our 'Remarks on the gradual alteration effected in our poetry by the Introduction and Progress of Classic Literature.' (vol. ii. p. 221,) and one or two others among the " Observations on the Rise and Progress of Satire in England," (lb. 611.) A few more yet remain to be exhibited. In the first Satire of the second book, Hall seems to have had the first of Persius in view; and the first Satire of the third book bears a striking resemblance to the sixth of Juvenal.

B. iii. Sat. 3. When satirizing the 'fare and fashions' of the citizens and hinting at the luxuries of ancient times, he has

" Goose liver for the liquorous Romaine"

with an evident reference to Horace, Sat. ii. viii. 88.

'Pinguibus & ficis pastum jecur anseris albi.'

And

'And chesnuts fair for Amaryllis' tooth.'

with a still more pointed allusion to one of Virgil's Eclogues, II. 52:

'Castaneasque nuces, mea quas Amaryllis amabat.'

B. iv. Sat. 1.

" But my six chords been of too loose a twine:
Stay till my beard shall sweep mine aged breast
Then shall I seem an awful satyrist.

How like is this to Persius, sat. i. l. 8.

— " Ah si fas dicere! sed fas
Tunc cum ad canitiem & nostrum istud vivere triste
Aspexi et nucibus facimus quæcunque relictis."

I now come to a satire (b. iv. sat. iii.) in which part of the eighth of Juvenal is followed in a style at once correct and spirited. The nature of this imitation is however such as to require a different track of comparison from the method already pursued. And I am necessitated for the convenience of the reader to give the extracts from Juvenal as notes.

B. iv. sat. 3.

" What boots it Pontice, though thou could'st discourse
Of a long golden line of ancestors?

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Or shew their painted faces gaily drest,
From ever since before the last conquest"(B)

" Or find some figures half obliterate
In rain-beat marble near to the church gate.(C)
Upon a cross-legg'd tomb."—

" Or hide whatever treasures he thee got
In some deep cock-pit or in desp'rate lot
Upon a six square piece of ivory
Throw both thyself and thy posterity.(D)

" And were thy fathers gentle? that's their praise;
No thank to thee by whom their name decays;
By Virtue got they it, and valourous deed;
Do thou so, Pontice, and be honoured.
But else look how their virtue was their own
Not capable of propagation."(E)

" Right so their titles been nor can be thine,
Whose ill-deserts might blank their golden line."(F)

B. iv. Sat. 4.

" But who hath seen the lambs of Tarentine
May guess what Gallio his manners beene
All soft as is the falling thistle downe."

Our Satyrist here seems to copy the idea from Juvenal, viii. l. 14.

Si cupidus si
Vanus et *Euganea quantumvis mollior agna*;
Si tenerum attritus Catinensi pumice lumbum
Squallentes traducit avos;—

In the sixth Satire of his fourth book, Hall has borrowed and successfully applied to his purpose several parts of Juvenal's first:

" No man his threshold better knows than I
" Brute's first arrival and first victory."(G)

" High stories they, which with their swelling straine
" Have riven Frontoe's broad rehearsal plaine."(H)

" But so to fill up books, both backe and side,
" What needs it."(I)

Another line in the same Satire

" Cries out O Julian law! Adultery!

is very much like Juvenal's

" Clamantem toties, ubi nunc lex Julia? Dormis?

Nor was the imitation of individual passages his only aim. He was desirous of infusing into his Satires a still greater accommodation with the Roman. Accordingly we find a studied imitation of its smaller parts, its persons, and its similies. Nor are his allusions confined to these alone.

(B) Stemmata quid faciunt? *Quid prodest*, PONTICE, *longo*
Sanguine censeri, pictosque ostendere vultus
Majorum. l. i.

(C) *Et Curios jam dimidios*, humeroque minorem
Corvinum, et Galbam auriculis nasoque carentem. l. 4.

(D) *Effigies quo*
Tot bellatorum, in luditur alea pernox
Ante Numantinos. l. 9.

(E) Tota licet veteres exornent undique ceræ
Atria, *Nobilitas sola est atque unica Virtus,*
Paulus vel Cossus vel Drusus moribus esto:
Hos ante effigies majorum pone tuorum. l. 19.

(F) ——— Sed te censeri laude tuorum
Pontice noluerim, sic ut nihil ipse futuræ
Laudis agas. Miserum est aliorum incumbere famæ. l. 76.

(G) " *Nota magis nulli domus est sua, quam mihi lucus*
Martis. Juv. Sat. i. l. 7.

(H) ——— " quantas jaculetur Monychus ornos
FRONTONIS *platani, convulsaque marmora clament*
Semper, et assiduo ruptæ lectore columnæ." l. 11.

(I) ——— " aut summi plena jam margine libri
Scriptus et in tergo, necdum finitus Orestes." l. 5.

B. iv. Sat. 1.

" Who dares upbraid these open rhymes of mine
With blindfold Aquines or dark *Venusine*?"

Venusia or Venusum, now Venosa, a town and principality in the kingdom of Naples, was the birth place of Horace. So Juvenal, l. 51.

" Hæc ego non credam *Venusina* digna lucernâ."

B. iv. Sat. 1.

" As oftentimes as PHILIP hath been dead."

Here we see our Satyrist referring through Philip of Spain, to the first Philippic of Demosthenes, where the orator, reprobating the supineness of his countrymen in giving credit to reports of Philip of Macedon's death, rather than preparing to oppose his armament, asks

— Τεθνηκε Φιλιππος; ου μα δι' αλλ' ασθενει.

B. iv. Sat. 1.

" And in thy dung-cart didst the carcass shrine
And deep intomb it in Port-Esqueline.

Esquiliæ was one of the Roman hills whereon were thrown the carcasses of malefactors, and where the eagles sought for prey. Horace has frequent allusions to it. To mention all the Roman customs and writings to which he alludes would be needless; one or two more instances will confirm the reader in the opinion that he was a correct imitator of the ancients.

B. iv. Sat. 4.

" Lucine's girdle with her swathing band."

B. iv. Sat. 5.

" Like Lucian's dream that silver turn'd to coals."

B. v. Sat. 3.

—— " with Æschylus both find and leese
The snaky tresses of th' Eumenides."

His allusions are sometimes of a more extensive nature, one I shall cite where he has in view the rape of Proserpine:

" So the black prince is broken loose again
That saw no sun save once (as stories sayne)
That once was when in Trinacry I ween
He stole the daughter of the harvest queen,
And grip't the mawes of barren Sicily
With long constraint of pineful penury."(K)

The analogy in most of the passages here cited, sufficiently indicates our author's track of reading. They shew that he did not run into the absurdity of his age, in the introduction of classical machinery because it was fashionable; but that he drank deeply of the spirit and sublimity of antient satire; that he was acquainted with it not only intimately but philosophically. Such imitations shew the everlasting debt we owe the ancients: and the use Hall has made of them, at once so judicious and poetical, confers on him as much honour as if they had solely arisen from his own pure imagination.

Having thus far treated of Hall's Imitations, I shall dedicate a few sentences to those who have followed his steps. Of these, the reader may perhaps be surprized to find that Marston who attacked him was the first. In his Satires he has frequently not only copied Hall's thought, but the very simile by which it was illustrated. His allusions to antient history are con-

(K) Chaucer has given an Introduction to the Rape of Proserpine in his Marchaunt's Tale, l. 1090.

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tinually the same with Hall's; but his use of it is far less philosophical. The characters he has painted are destitute of those striking lineaments which distinguish the portraits of Hall, his sentiments are of a looser turn, and his Satires less poetical. Hall prefixed to his Satires a Defiance to Envy, and Marston prefaced *his* with a "Poesy to Detraction."—The particular instances of imitation however, I shall forbear to cite on the present occasion: observing only, that although the same materials are left to all Poets, it is not likely that any two should, without the slightest intercourse, illustrate the same thoughts by the same allusions: or however intimate might be their acquaintance with the writers of antiquity, it cannot for a moment be supposed, that coincidence of thought alone should *continually* direct them to the same passages of a classic author.

Another and more flagrant imitator was Oldham; whose Satires, though in the same metre with Hall's, possess not that pleasing equability which distinguishes *Virgidemiarum*. His severity sometimes swells to anger, and sometimes sinks to invective. Like Hall he has occasionally broken lines; and in some parts the same outline is more diffusely filled. To his rhymes however, he was often inattentive: and he has too artfully worked upon Hall's materials to be termed a copyist. He has dilated our satyrist's ideas without weakening them. In Oldham's "Satire touching Nobility," are many lines which bespeak more than mere coincidence with what Hall had written on a similar occasion: and in Oldham's Satire addressed to a friend that was about to leave the university," from l. 70 to 95, the reader will perceive a close resemblance to the sixth satire of Hall's second book.

Such are the imitations from Hall; if considered as the plagiaries of two poets they vanish to nothing. But I surely may adduce them as proofs that our author's Satires contain lines and sentiments whose adoption would by no means disgrace the fertile and inventive genius of those who live in an age when poetry has nearly exhausted all her fascinating stores.

MANNERS.

The Nabob.—N° XI.

Dat veniam corvis, vexat censura columbas. JUVENAL.

We scare the harmless dove, but shew
Due reverence to the carrion-crow.

IN one of the deepest vallies which lie hid amidst the mountains of Kongo, about thirty scattered huts are known by the name of the *village of Huntsmen*. The inhabitants are scarcely more civilized than the animals of the forest whom they continually pursue. A few scattered fields of rice which line the banks of a rivulet, are indeed almost the only vestiges which here remind us of the arts of man.

The rainy season was now over; I had resumed my journey to the northward; and as it was impossible to fix upon any settled course in the pathless mountains of Kongo, I allowed myself to be led by the dry track of a torrent into the valley of huntsmen. The forests and the fields, refreshed by the late rains, were again clothed in the most luxuriant verdure; and a profusion of flowers arrayed in all the gaudy colours which nature lavishes in the tropical climates, reminded the inhabitants of the sacred tribute due to the dead. On entering the village I repaired to the tree provided for a shelter to travellers. One of the green seats which surrounded it, was already occupied by another stranger, who from his dress and looks appeared an Arabian. He was attentively eyeing the procession which approached towards the place where he sat. The villagers were proceeding, according to the annual custom of the country, to open the graves of the dead, and to strew the remains of their departed friends with flowers. They stopt at a little enclosure hard by the place where I sat: it contained the body of a youth equally distinguished in war and the chace. He had perished in the sight of his kinsmen, while repulsing the natives of a neighbouring valley, who had suddenly attempted to plunder the village of huntsmen. His mother bore a basket of flowers in one hand, and with her other held the right hand of the girl who had been betrothed to her son, and who now came with the choicest flowers her diligence had been able to cull; as a pledge to her departed bridegroom that she only lived to do homage to his memory. No sooner was the grave opened and the body exposed to their view, than they set up a loud shout, as if the dead had for a moment been restored to them; and then, heaping upon him a profusion of flowers, strove to prove the unabated ardour of their affection.

An involuntary exclamation, drawn forth by the mixture of whimsical superstition and generous affection presented before me, attracted the attention of the Arabian who had not hitherto observed me. He seemed to comprehend my meaning, and perceiving from my complexion and beard that I was an European, he addressed me in Italian:

"Fellow traveller, said he, you and I seem to have come to this spot on the same errand; to observe the uncouth usages of this savage people, and return to our brethren of civilized society, who will join us in laughing at their absurdities and pitying their ignorance. You have no doubt, in the course of your travels, seen many things to draw forth exclamations of surprise. I also have often lifted up my hands in wonder, since the day I quitted the holy city of Mecca, with a vow to spend my days in observing the ways of man.

"In a distant part of the world, I arrived at a large and populous city, known, from its great wealth, by the name of the *City of the Golden River*. The inhabitants boasted themselves to be the best and wisest of all nations; and on entering the streets, when I perceived the eager crowds pressing past me in every direction, I thought that surely this blessed people were all hastening in pursuit of wisdom and virtue.

"How different in their usages were this most polished of nations from the savages whom you see yonder ornamenting the putrid remains of the dead with flowers. They well know that when once the spirit is fled, what remains behind is nothing more than a senseless lump of clay, which must be removed

quickly to its mother earth to prevent disgust and loathing. As soon, therefore, as the breath has left the body of a relative, the whole family quit the house till the nuisance it contains be removed. The care of doing so is entrusted to certain persons who hire themselves for this purpose, and who at their convenience deposit the body in the vault to which it is destined. Sometimes however, these persons, being as wise and prudent as the rest of their nation, find means to turn the useless remains of the human race to some advantage; and many a wealthy epicure, who lived only for himself, is at length compelled, in the form of a skeleton, to render some benefit to his race.

"The savages of Kongo follow their departed kinsman to the grave, weeping and wailing aloud for him who is never more to enjoy the embraces and applause of his beloved friends. The inhabitants of the City of the Golden River, in their barbarous days, had a similar custom; and as many ridiculous things are held in reverence from their antiquity, they are still obliged in some degree to comply with an usage which they know to be absurd. They are however, too careful of reputation to be found performing such foolish rites in person. It is therefore the custom to hire some of the lowest of the people, who are too needy to be scrupulous what they do, provided they can earn a livelihood. These persons they dress in certain habits which are supposed to denote very deep sorrow; and a long train of carriages being also with their drivers and horses arrayed in the emblems of mourning, the body, or at least the coffin, of the deceased is thus conveyed with due honour to the grave.

"The savage custom of tearing the hair and disfiguring the cheeks, by which the females of Kongo express their keen sorrow for their departed husbands and lovers, are of course unknown among the polished nation I am describing. It is not however from the fear of pain, but merely from their sense of its folly, that they abstain from this practice. When proper occasions offer, the most delicate females display the most resolute contempt of pain. About twenty years ago high foreheads were an object of admiration; at that time, therefore, it was customary for the ladies to have their hair removed an inch back on their brow, even although the blood followed every hair that was pulled. It is usual for young females, whose teeth do not equal in beauty their other charms, to remedy the defect of nature by having them all pulled out to make room for the more perfect preparations of art. During my stay there it was even in question to introduce a custom known among the ladies of the West Indies, who by means of a caustic liquid, contrive to deliver their faces from its old skin, and to procure for it a new and beautiful covering.

"The females of this wise nation I speak of are well assured that the departed neither know nor care how those left behind demean themselves. Instead therefore of leaving their hair dishevelled, throwing aside their ornaments, and seeking out some solitary place to give full vent to their grief, like the females of Kongo, they take advantage of the old custom I mentioned, of honouring the dead, to assume a particular dress which is thought very becoming. To shew that they are altogether above cherishing any idle sorrows, that can have no effect but to render their eyes red and their complexions pale, it is the custom to appear in this new dress as soon as possible at some public scene of peculiar festivity. Hence it frequently happens that the funeral processions of the dead interrupt the carriage of his mother, his sisters, or his wife, on their way to a public breakfast or a military gala.

"Violent, and uncontrouled passions are a mark of rudeness; and to bear the external emblems of such passions, would denote a hankering after barbarism. In the polished City of the Golden River therefore, grief like other feelings is reduced to rule. An exact period is fixed for relations to appear to mourn; and we have only to know the degree of kindred, to be able to ascertain to a day, how long the survivors will grieve for their deceased friend.

"Nor is it only in regard to their indifference for the dead, that this nation may boast of its civilization. All the other feelings common to savages are nearly as well subdued as those of grief. In the village of huntsmen, when a child is brought into the world, the inhabitants meet to rejoice over this addition to their tribe. The mother fondly gives her little pride, from her own breast, the only food of its infancy. In hunting expeditions she carries it in a basket slung on her back, and the father by turns relieves her of the pleasing load. When hoeing the rice fields, in company with her husband, her infant lies in its basket under the shade of a neighbouring palm; and at the intervals of labour, while the others refresh themselves, she turns aside to share with her little innocent the nourishment which her own body seems to require for its support. Every morsel during his childhood is conveyed to his little mouth with her own hand. When time has given strength to his limbs, he is found by the side of his father in the chace, and returns in triumph to present his booty to her that suckled him. He may be fierce or cruel to others; but he pays reverence to those who cherished his infancy while they live, and is careful to strew their dead bodies with the choicest flowers of the valley.

"The wise parents of the City of the Golden River, however, know that it is extreme folly to sacrifice their own pleasures for the sake of those who may or may not turn out a comfort to their old age. The ladies know that suckling is a tedious and teazing employment; that it is inconsistent with every plan of pleasure; and that besides it is reckoned very hurtful to the shape. This disagreeable office is therefore consigned to those who are glad to perform it for the sake of a subsistence; and as persons are hired to pay the last tribute of affection to the dead, those who come into the world have also to bestow their earliest affections on attendants procured by hire. If the mother is too wise to sacrifice her own enjoyments to the numberless cares of rearing the infant, it is not to be supposed that the father will pay any needless attentions to the youth. A son then becomes interesting to his parents, when he can grace the parties of his mother, and join his father in his sports or his bottle. By this means the affections of kindred are prevented from ever attaining any inordinate height; and the son consigns the remains of his father or mother to

the hands of the undertaker, and decently puts on the accustomed dress, without disturbing either his own mind or those around him by idle demonstrations of grief.

"I could mention many more usages of this polished people, which bear a striking contrast to those of the barbarous natives of Kongo, and which could not fail to excite my astonishment at their wonderful wisdom and civilization. But I observe the villagers have already closed the grave of the deceased; and the hour approaches when their portion of rice is sent to the strangers. Suffice it therefore to say, that the inhabitants of the City of the Golden River seemed to be convinced, that as nature is the only guide of savages, a people is the more civilized the less it is guided by the dictates of nature."

POLITICAL ESSAYS.

Paper Currency.—Concluded.

THE two great arguments which Lord King employed to prove the depreciation of English paper currency, he has employed likewise to prove the depreciation of Irish paper currency. These arguments were drawn from the high price of bullion, and from the state of exchange. We have already endeavourod to shew that neither of these circumstances could be owing to the state of the paper currency, but depended on quite different causes.

A third argument remains in the case of Ireland: It is that guineas in Ireland bear a premium exchanged for bank notes. This is undoubtedly a depreciation of paper compared with guineas, to the full amount of the premium given in exchange. It is necessary to examine to what this is owing.

We have not heard it stated that any premium is given upon shillings exchanged against bank notes. A one pound bank note is exchanged for twenty shillings in Ireland, just as it is here. There is accordingly no depreciation of bank notes compared with shillings, but only with guineas. What is the conclusion from this but that it is the shillings which are depreciated, and not the notes? This is the fact. The silver currency of Ireland is, and has long been of so degraded a sort that it is not worth one half of its nominal value. Many years ago the value of English shillings compared with Irish was reckoned as 12 to 13; and the par of exchange according to this calculation was fixed at 8¼ per cent. It is to be observed that guineas are entirely an English coin, none having been ever made in Ireland; guineas therefore being worth 21 shillings English, are worth more than 21 shillings Irish, in the proportion of 12 to 13; and of course are intitled to bear that premium. Let us suppose now that guinea notes of the bank of Ireland were issued. These are payable by 21 shillings Irish. But an English guinea is worth 21 shillings English, that is 22*s.* 9*d.* Irish; and therefore ought to bear a premium of 1*s.* 9*d.* in exchange for the Irish guinea bank note. This is at the rate of 8¾ per cent. The premium however lately given for guineas has been so high Lord King says as 10 per cent, and even more. That is to say the premium on guineas has lately been 1¼ per cent, or somewhat more, above what it has been for a century past. This is not a fluctuation greatly to be wondered at; when we consider the disorder, and insecurity of Ireland during the last half dozen years. And the debasement which the silver currency of Ireland has sustained during these years is more than sufficient to account for it. The abuses of false coiners have been carried to the greatest excess. A piece of silver is beaten out into thin plates, and cut into round pieces of not one third part of the weight of a mint shilling, and this instantly passes greedily for coin. So enormous is the carelessness and disorder with which the business of Ireland, both private and public, is conducted. The late disorders have given facilities to these abuses, greater than even those which existed before; and the full advantage has been taken of them. It has followed of course that the silver currency, compared with that of England has sunk in value; and with equal necessity that the paper of the bank, payable in silver currency, has sunk along with it; and this would have happened equally though not one thousand pounds worth of bank paper had been in circulation.

We think therefore it may be safely concluded that Lord King has completely failed in his proof that any depreciation of the currency, either of England or of Ireland has been occasioned by an excessive issue of the paper of the banks. But we go further; and we think it may be concluded on very good reasons, that no issue of paper by banks can ever in any considerable degree affect the value of gold and silver currency. In a certain very limited degree it may; but it is not in the nature of the thing that it should beyond that degree. Any considerable alteration in the value of gold and silver currency must arise from causes altogether different.

Dr. Smith stated that a certain quantity of currency in every country was necessary to fill the channel of circulation; and that as soon as this channel was filled, all additional currency attempted to be thrown into it, overflowed. The meaning of this is that a certain quantity of currency is necessary to perform the business of every country; and as soon as ever that quantity is supplied no more currency can be employed in that country. After all the contradiction which this position has sustained it is very near the truth, as near perhaps as a general position, which is only an approximation to the truth in a multitude of cases, can be required to be. If this be just it then follows that a currency, whether of paper or specie, can never be depreciated by any excess of quantity, since no excessive quantity can ever be received into circulation.

It is a vulgar observation that every man wishes to have as much money as possible; and this leads us to think that it is an easy thing to circulate as much money as is pleased in any country. This is a metaphorical expression which is directly contrary to the literal truth. Every man, in reality, desires to have as little money as possible, and uses every means in his power for that purpose. He desires to have as

much land as possible, because that brings him a rent; he desires to have as great funds as possible employed in trade, because these bring him a profit; or laid out at interest, because they bring him interest. But he wishes to have in his hands no more money than is absolutely necessary to make his immediate payments, because in that state his property brings him nothing. Since every man therefore is desirous to clear his hands of money to the greatest degree in his power; it is evident that no more money can be forced into circulation than what is necessary for performing with the greatest convenience the several payments of the country. From this view of the case it appears evident that no depreciation of currency can ever arise from an excessive emission of paper, since that never can be excessive.

But this position has been controverted. Mr. Thornton in his volume on paper credit has advanced an opinion that currency to any amount may be received into circulation; and on the authority of his name and arguments this position has been received by all the authors and critics whom we have found treating on this subject since the publication of his book. That gentleman states that an increase of currency raises the price of commodities; that this increase of price renders an additional quantity of currency necessary to make the payments on the same exchanges of these commodities; that thus the channel of circulation can never be full; as every addition made to the current which flows in it produces a proportionate enlargement of the channel itself. This rise of prices, he says, is the same thing as a depreciation of the currency; since as much as commodities rise currency falls. Now it must be this kind of depreciation which Lord King means when he says that British currency has been depreciated by the excessive issues of bank paper. He nowhere however says so. Nor is it clear that he was perfectly aware that this is the only kind of depreciation which he could mean. It may be remarked that if he had been aware of this circumstance it is probable that he would have begun his proof with an attempt to shew that prices have risen since the issue of paper, which he accounts excessive, began. As the fact is that they have not risen in any degree beyond that in which they were rising previous to that period, there is good reason to conclude, on the ground on which which Lord King himself proceeds, that no depreciation has taken place.

We have remarked with some surprize, that, in the reasonings of these, and other ingenious authors on the subject of the depreciation of currency, the paper which is issued by a bank on the credit of its funds and the securities deposited with it, should be confounded with the paper or with the degraded coin which governments have sometimes issued for the payment of their debts. The confounding of these two things has produced the most important of the errors into which they have fallen. Let us only consider how vast a difference there is between the cases. It will be found in the circumstances of the emission. Banks issue their notes in loans to individuals, or to the government, which in this case is the same as an individual, on good securities deposited with them, of the full value with interest of the notes they deliver. No man will borrow these notes at this value, unless he knows that he can dispose of them, at the same value. He borrows them because he has occasion to pay them immediately away. But the person to whom he offers them in payment will not receive them; unless he knows that he can pay them away to the next person at the same value. Every step of this process is a voluntary step. Every particle of the money drawn from the bank in this way is drawn to make immediate payments, and no more will ever be drawn than is necessary for that purpose, since no person will ever pay interest to a bank for money to lie idle in his hands. Let us next consider the nature of the government issues which produce a depreciation. Let us first suppose that it degrades the currency. It gives to its creditors guineas of only half the old value. They are obliged to take these guineas, because they can get no better; and they are more willing to lose part of their debts than the whole. But nobody receives from them these new guineas at the value of the old. When one of them goes to market with one of these and offers it for a commodity which he might have purchased for an old guinea, the seller tells him, no; I cannot give my commodity, for your light guinea; I must have more. Thus prices rise and money falls. Let us next snppose that the government issues paper instead of debased money in the payment of its debts. The creditor must take this paper, however much he is likely to lose by it, because he can get nothing else. When an individual goes to borrow money from the bank, he takes no more than what he has pressing occasion to pay away. Every person who goes to the bank follows the same rule; and thus no more will ever be taken out than is exactly necessary to perform immediate payments. But the creditor who takes paper money from a government takes not barely what is necessary for him to make his immediate payments, he takes to the full amount of his debt; this may be twenty times the sum he wants for his immediate payments; and thus twenty times the currency wanted for this occasion may be forced into circulation. Every creditor thus paid by government, and every person from whom it makes purchases is in the same situation. These may amount to a great proportion of all the inhabitants of the state; and the currency thus forced into their hands may be any number of times greater than they would have voluntarily taken. They cannot dispense with the use of so great a part of their property as is thus turned into government paper. They are obliged to dispose of it, and to take for it what they can get. It thus becomes depreciated.

Another remarkable difference is observable between the nature of bank paper and government paper. Bank paper constantly returns to the Bank; and if cash is not given for it, the securities at least are restored on which it was delivered. Government paper never returns; because it is given away in payment of a debt, and no pledge is to be redeemed. Bank paper has a constant tendency to return; because, besides that every individual has an interest in retaining as little money in his hands as possible; it is observable that for every Bank note that is in circulation,

some individual or another pays interest. And no one pays interest for more money, or for a longer time than is indispensably requisite. We have already observed that no one ever takes more money from a bank than is absolutely necessary for his immediate occasions. On this account it can happen very rarely that more Bank money will come into any individual's hands than he has immediate occasion for. But supposing that it should, what does he with it? He wishes to have it out of his hands, because in its present shape it is altogether useless to him. He accordingly sends it immediately to the bank to redeem his own pledges, if he has any. But if he has not, he gives it to some one who has pledges there which he wishes to redeem, and who gives him for it an equivalent. From this exposition we think it will be evident that it must be very difficult for more bank money ever to come into circulation than is necessary for the occasions of the country; and by consequence for any rise of prices, or depreciation of currency to be effected by that means; that thus there is very little importance in the doctrine of Mr. Thornton which has been so implicitly received; and that Dr. Smith's position is very well founded.

We shall endeavour to shew by another process of reasoning, what little truth there is in the opinion of Mr. Thornton. We advance a position which is directly the reverse of his; and we say that prices are very little affected, if they are affected at all, by any increase or diminution of the circulating medium. To see the truth of this position it is necessary to recollect what it is that purchases are in reality made by. Puschases are in fact the exchanges of commodities for one another; shoes are exchanged for breeches; sheep are exchanged for calico; a man's labour for meat and drink, and so on. Money is only the exstrument by which these exchanges are performed. No man estimates the expence which he shall be able to make, by the money he possesses; but by the valuable commodities he has to dispose of. The expence which is made by all the individuals of the nation in a year is many times the amount of all the money in the nation; it is made by exchanging the commodities which they are willing to dispose of for other commodities.

It is very well established that it is the demand for commodities which determines their price. If the demand increase prices rise; if it diminish prices fall. If then we would ascertain whether an increase in the circulating medium produce a rise of prices, we have only to examine what effect it is capable of producing upon the demand for commodities. That effect, we think it will clearly appear, is very little.

The great aggregate annual demand of the country is made up of all that disposeable property which every individual is willing to give annually away to get other articles which he wants. Of this disposeable property no part in strict truth ought to be considered as money. Because no man has any money in his hands for which he has not given away some property of a different description. Any increase made to the sum of this disposeable property, intended to be exchanged for other commodities, encreases the aggregate demand of the country, and thus raises prices; and any diminution sinks them. But as money makes in fact, and in ultimate event, no part of that disposeable property, any increase or diminution in the quantity of it can have no effect on prices.

As we are sensible, however, that such of our readers as have not been a good deal accustomed to analyze the complex ideas connected with this subject will find some difficulty in entering into this reasoning, we shall suppose that the money in the country does form part of the disposeable property of which the annual demand, stated above, is composed. We shall see that even on this supposition any possible increase in the circulating medium can have very little effect on prices. It is probable that the whole circulating cash of Great Britain including coin and paper has never exceeded 35 millions. But the annual expence of all the inhabitants of Great Britain, the things of which they dispose for articles they want, cannot be estimated at less than 250 millions. This constitutes the great aggregate demand of the country. Let us now make a very violent supposition; that the currency of the country is encreased one half. The 250 millions of demand is then encreased by 17 millions. The effect of this on prices would be to raise them about one fifteenth; thus a commodity which sold before for 15 shillings, would now sell for nearly sixteen, or in other words at $6\frac{2}{3}$ per cent. advance. This is the utmost effect which we think even the advocates of this doctrine can suppose will be produced on prices by the greatest increase of the circulating medium. But surely an increase of one fifteenth on prices does not require an increase of one half of the quantity of the circulating medium. Great part of it therefore, according to the expression of Dr. Smith, must necessarily overflow.

It will be easily seen, however, that we allowed a great deal too much, when we said that an increase of 15 millions in the circulating medium added 15 millions to the great aggregate demand of the country. It would produce this effect, if the 15 millions were distributed gratis to the inhabitants of the country. But this it is not. For every pound of it which any man receives he gives an equivalent, just as he did for a pound of the old circulating medium. His disposeable effects therefore are not increased by what he receives of this 15 millions. Thus it appears that the great aggregate demand of the country, the power of the people to make purchases is not at all increased by this increase of the circulating medium. If the power of any persons to make purchases is thus increased, it must be that of the persons who issue it, that is the bankers. But how is their power encreased? They issue it in loans; and what they receive for it is only securities, which they are obliged to restore. They indeed make interest upon it; and to this amount their power of making purchases is increased. But the profits and expences of the bankers will not be supposed to affect prices in any great degree. The accommodation granted to the nation in additional loans to the amount of 17 millions may give some small additional power to make purchases. But it must be equally inconsiderable with that acquired by the bankers in affording these loans. However it is

evident that the advantage obtained from lending 17 millions, and the advantage obtained from borrowing them, is the whole amount of the power afforded to make purchases by the issue of 17 millions of additional currency. All the effect which this can have on prices is too insignificant to be estimated.

We have been obliged to express these ideas much more shortly and imperfectly than the intricacy and importance of the subject required. But if we have been happy enough to make them intelligible to our readers, they will agree with us in the following conclusions; that the currency of a country can never be rendered excessive by the issues of banks; that currency can never sustain depreciation by the magnitude of these issues; and that the unfavourable state of exchange in Ireland, the high price of bullion, and the premium on guineas must be owing to something different from the paper issued by the bank of Ireland.

The truth is, when the social and political state of Ireland is in such extreme disorder, it is not to be expected but that her commercial state should be in disorder also. That confidence which is the foundation of credit, and the soul of commerce is in a great measure banished from Ireland. Paper money is credit merely. It will naturally happen, therefore, wherever confidence is not generally established, that specie, having an intrinsic value, will be preferred to paper money; and if it be difficult to be found, that people will be willing to give something to have it rather than paper. But this depreciation is not the effect of excess, but of the want of confidence; and would take place though there were a manifest deficiency of currency. Two causes therefore, the great want of confidence and credit in Ireland, and the very degraded state of its metallic money are sufficient to account for all the excess in its unfavourable exchange. And the measures necessary to remedy this evil are to reform the coin, and restore order to the political and social state of the kingdom. Till these objects are accomplished, particularly this last, it is vain to look for order or prosperity in the commercial department of national affairs; and our rulers may rely, whether they chuse to believe it or not, that the monstrous disorders in the finances of that kingdom, which we had lately displayed to us so openly in parliament, will continue and increase; and that land will be sold in as vast quantities, as those in which we know it to be offered to sale at present, till Ireland will become a wretched waste, and a burden upon the empire.

The principles which we have laid down in this discussion will enable our readers to judge for themselves of the doctrines maintained in the two pamphlets, whose titles are placed at the head of the first of these essays. There is another pamphlet on the same subject lately published, of which we meant to have taken some notice in the course of the discussion. This we found, however, would rather confuse than illustrate the doctrines we meant to explain; for which reason we resolved to point out its connection with the subject of which we have been treating, and to deliver our opinion of its merits, after we had brought our enquiries to a close. It is an enquiry into the real difference between actual money and paper money by Magens Dorrien Magens, Esq. It is chiefly didactic; explaining the nature of different kinds of paper, as well as of metallic money; and on this account may be not a little useful. It advances few doctrinal points; some of which are conformable to the opinions stated above, and some are inconsistent with them. We do not conceive that it would be interesting to our readers to enter into any minute criticism of these points.

Political History from June 16 to July 1.

FOREIGN.

French State Trials.—These trials have at length been brought to a conclusion. Moreau, having been found guilty of maintaining an intimacy with the conspirators, although not actually engaged in the plot against the First Consul's life, has been sentenced to two years' imprisonment. Georges has been condemned to death, along with those accounted his most active partizans. Of the rest some have been acquitted, some sentenced to two year's imprisonment, and others delivered over to the police for correction. According to the present system of French Judicature, a court called the Tribunal of Cassation is empowered, on an appeal from those condemned, to revise, and, if judged proper, to alter the sentence. To this tribunal all those condemned to death, with the exception of Georges, have appealed. This undaunted royalist openly avows his attachment to the exiled family, and prepares to mount the scaffold as a martyr to their cause. Emperor Napoleon has of course not omitted this fair occasion to spread abroad the renown of his clemency; and he has contrived to exercise his imperial power of pardoning in such a manner as to ingratiate not only himself, but his royal house with the admirers of clemency. One of the condemned has been granted to the prayers of his wife, who threw herself at the Emperor's feet; another has owed his pardon to his daughter's tears, and a third to the solicitations of his sister. The interviews, in which these females were enabled to soften the heart of his Majesty, were all obtained through the means of some female of the Royal Family; the Empress, her daughter, and her Highness Madame Murat, sister to Bonaparte, partake in the applause of these glorious acts of clemency. In this farce we find the usages of the old court completely revived. The Emperor does not pardon from any reasons of state, but entirely from the generous movements of his own nature; and the ladies of the court are the instruments employed to move him to grace. It is said that Moreau's escape from the scaffold has occasioned great rejoicings among the army formerly under his command. But Bonaparte may rest secure in regard to him: no party will henceforth entrust their designs with such a man as Moreau.

DOMESTIC.

Army Bill.—This measure has produced a trial of strength between the present ministry and their opponents. The chief division in the house of Commons, took place on the question for engrossing the bill: there appeared for it 265, against it 223: the majority of the minister was of course 42. The minority is by far the most numerous that has existed for

many years. Mr. Pitt, however, gave no obscure intimation that even a defeat would not be sufficient to drive him from his post. The minority have not since made any active exertions in the house of Commons. —The trial of strength in the house of Lords, took place on the second reading of the bill. There appeared on this question, 84 contents and 70 proxies; 50 non-contents and 19 proxies: the majority on the part of ministers being 34 members present and 61 absent, making in all 85. The bill has since passed without further opposition; and it is thought that the minister finding himself secure of a majority, will bring forward some other plans of magnitude before the prorogation of parliament.

Lord Advocate of Scotland.—A cause of very great importance to the liberties of one part of this kingdom, has undergone a serious discussion in the House of Commons. A servant having been dismissed by his master, a farmer in Banffshire, for attending the drills of a volunteer corps without leave, applied to the Lord Advocate for redress. This crown officer replied to the servant, that he was afraid no legal redress could be obtained: but at the same time he wrote to the Sheriff of the county representing the conduct of the farmer as a mark of disaffection, desiring that his company should be avoided, that on the landing of the French he should be arrested as a suspected person; and that if his property should be destroyed, he (the Lord Advocate) should do his utmost to prevent him from receiving any compensation. These violent stretches of power in a law officer were brought before the house of Commons by Mr. Whitbread. The facts having been established by the production of a copy of the letter, Mr. Whitbread moved a resolution: "that the conduct of the Honourable Charles Hope, in writing the said letter was illegal, oppressive, and contrary to his official duties." This resolution he intended to follow up by a motion for the removal of the Lord Advocate from his office.—The defence urged by Mr. Hope and his friends, rested chiefly upon his general good character. It was stated also that the farmer was suspected of being associated with a disaffected club; that great fears were entertained of an immediate invasion, and that as the volunteers were the only force on which that part of Scotland had to rely for defence, it was necessary that they should meet with no obstructions. It was alledged that stretches of power beyond the law in similar emergencies, had been approved in former Lords' Advocate; and that in all events Mr. Hope had been hurried into this indiscretion by the ardour of his mind, and that the illegality of the action ought to be excused for the loyalty of the intention. By this mode of defence the allegations of the resolution and the facts on which it was founded, were not attempted to be disproved; but the palliations alledged being received in good part by the majority of the house, the motion was on a division negatived.

NOTICES.

LITERARY.

Royal Institution.—The several courses of the present season, at the Royal Institution were concluded on the 22d ult. by Mr. Crowe's last lecture on civil architecture. The following is the arrangement made for the lectures and experiments of the ensuing season. Four more courses are to be added—viz. Moral Philosophy, Music, Engraving, and History; and the whole will be divided into Christmas and Spring lectures. The former will take place from the 10th of November to the 26th of January; and the latter, from the 5th February to the 15th of June. Both courses together will include 172 lectures; in the Christmas course 72, and 100 in the Spring course. The professors for the new branches, in the order above mentioned, are the Rev. Sydney Smith, Dr. Crotch, Mr. Landseer, and Mr. Crowe.

A new edition of Dr. Campbell's Translation of the Gospels and Dissertations, with the author's last corrections and notes, will be published about the beginning of August in 4 vols. 8vo.

Mr. Thomas Taylor is employed in translating into English the whole of the works of Aristotle, with the substance of the Commentaries of his best Greek interpreters.

The third Volume of the Abridgement of the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society is completed.

Rare Collection of Manuscripts.—A great literary treasure has lately been brought to St. Petersburgh. A rich friend of literature employed his stay in France, during the turbulent times of the revolution, in purchasing the most valuable and rare manuscripts of the most celebrated libraries, the greater part of which were plundered. By this means he was enabled to collect above 900 volumes, which, for their rarity and value are not perhaps to be equalled. He is in possession of the greater part of the manuscripts from which the *Traité de Diplomatique* was compiled; and has also procured the rarest books of the celebrated Abbey of Corvey, St. Germain des près, the libraries of Seguier, the Archbishop of Sens, the Duke de la Valliere, &c. besides a number of the scarcest old editions.

Natural History.—*Cuvier*, the well-known natural historian, has lately published a work on the species of animals that have been lost. A new investigation awaits him in a skeleton lately brought to Paris, of an animal which seems to be between the Tapir and Rhinoceros.—The geographer of one of the two ships which lately sailed under Captain Baudin on a voyage round the world, has lately landed at l'Orient from the Isle of France, bringing with him some remarkable animals alive, and rare plants.

L. P. Couret-de-Villeneuve, member of several learned societies, has lately published a botanical work at Paris, intitled *Hortus Ganduvansis*. It contains a description of all the plants that are cultivated in the botanical garden of the central college at *Ghent*, arranged according to the Linnæan system. This though upon a confined plan is a very useful publication.

Oriental Philosophy.—The second volume of *Anquetil Duperron's* translation of the *Dupnek'hat*, one of the Indian philosophical books has been lately published at Paris. The first volume appeared in 1802. This work which is very scarce even in India contains the ancient and secret doctrines of the four sacred books of the Hindoos. M. *Anquetil Duperron* is at present engaged in preparing a dictionary and grammar of the *Sanscrit* language, which will shortly appear. These will afford considerable facility to the investigation of Eastern literature.

The Italian Cabinet.—M. Benkowitz has published in Germany a work intitled *The Italian Cabinet*. The contents of this work are divided into seven parts:—1. Mi-

nerals and species of Lava; 2. Bronzes; 3. Etruscan, Roman, and Egyptian vases; 4. Shells found in the Gulf of Naples; 5. Notices of the most distinguished persons at present living in Rome and Naples; 6. Engravings from Rome and Naples; 7. Accounts of the present state of the Fine Arts there.

FREEDOM OF THE GERMAN PRESS.—The work lately published under the title of *Napoleon Bonaparte and the French nation under his Government*, and which had immediately been suppressed at Leipzig, Hanover, Brunswick and Franckfort, under severe penalties, has since been also confiscated in Suabia by the Bavarian government. It has, however, been translated into English, and has just issued from the press in one 8vo volume.

SWEDISH PRESS.—There are at present in Sweden thirty-six printing-offices, of which there are thirteen at Stockholm, two at Gothenburg, two at Lund, and one each in nineteen other towns. The number of Journals printed in these offices is as follows:—at Stockholm five, at Gothenburg four, at Upsal, Calmar, and Linkoping, two each, and one each at fourteen other towns: to each Journal is added a sheet for news (*intelligenz blatt*). In Paris alone there are 450 printers and booksellers; the number in London is much greater, and out of all comparison in regard to trade and wealth.

LITERARY LOTTERY.—A large collection of books, to the value of 500,000 rubles (£62,500) is, by the permission of his Imperial Majesty, to be disposed of at Moscow by way of lottery. The printed catalogue contains 145 pages, and enumerates 2612 Russian books with their prices. As this undertaking is the first of the kind in Russia, and as the Catalogue itself affords much curious information with regard to the present state of literature in that empire, it has excited very general attention. The largest prize amounts to 10,000 rubles, (£1,250) worth of books. There are besides 35,000 other prizes, the least of which is of the value of 10 rubles. His Imperial Majesty has purchased 1000 tickets, the produce of which is to be distributed among the various establishments for public instruction.

SCIENTIFIC, &c.

The Rewards conferred by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manfactures, and Commerce, were presented the 29th of May to the respective Candidates, *by his Grace the Duke of Norfolk, the President, in the following order:*

IN AGRICULTURE.—To J. C. Curwen, Esq. M. P. of Belle-Isle, Winandermere, for planting 814,956 timber trees; class 23; the gold medal.

To J. A. Borron, Esq. Warrington, for planting 600,000 osiers; class 14; the gold medal.

To John Shirreff, Esq. Captain Head, for preserving turnips in winter; class 51; the gold medal, or thirty guineas.

To Thomas Plowman, Esq. Broome, in Norfolk, for an improved sheepfold; the gold medal.

To J. C. Curwen, Esq. M.P. Belle-Isle, Winandermere, for Drains extending 6000 yards; the gold medal.

To Mr. William Watson, North Middleton, near Belford, Northumberland, for the comparative culture of turnips; the silver medal.

To John Hutton, Esq. Marske, near Richmond, Yorkshire, for planting 19 acres with forest trees; the silver medal.

To Mr. William Pearce, Landewednack, near Helston, Cornwall, for unremitted industry; the silver medal, and fifteen guineas.

IN CHEMISTRY.—To Sir. H. Englefield, Bart. Tilney-street, for lake from madder, the gold medal.

To Dr. William Dyce, Aberdeen, for a mine of manganese, the gold medal.

To Mr. Matthew Gregson, Liverpool, for useful applications of burnt articles, the gold medal.

To J. Machlachlan, Esq. Calcutta, for accounts of the Eastern red dyes, and mineral products, the silver medal.

IN POLITE ARTS.—To Miss Elizabeth Penman, Glasgow, for an original painting of a young lady; class 127; the gold medal.

To Miss Elizabeth Cruttwell, Hammersmith, for a drawing copied from Bartolozzi's print of Silence; class 128; the silver medal.

To Miss Harriet Gough, Pontatawee Cottage, near Neath, Glamorganshire, for a crayon drawing of the Embassador of Peace, from an idea in Blacklock's poems; the silver medal.

To Miss Grindall, Lower Brooke-street, Grosvenor-square, for a drawiug of the Holy Family, copied from an original of Francesco Vaunis; the silver medal.

To Miss Sophia Charlotte Day, Lower Bryanstone-street, Portman-square, for a black chalk drawing of the Virgin and Child; the silver medal.

To Miss Spurgeon, Lowestoft, Suffolk, for copies of two miniature paintings; the silver medal.

To Miss Andree, Hatton Garden, for an oil painting of a Child with Fruit; the silver medal.

To John Churchman, Esq. for geographical and topographical improvement; the silver medal.

To Miss Matilda Lowry, Titchfield-street, for an original view from Hampstead; class 131; the gold pallet.

To Mr. George Shepherd, Radcliffe-row, City-road, for an original view of St. Augustine's Gate, in Canterbury; class 132; the greater silver pallet.

To Mr. Henry Corbould, John-street, Fitzroy-square, for an original historical drawing of Mars and Bellona; class 133; the gold pallet.

To Mr. W. Heseltine, Bromley, near Bow, for an original historical drawing of the Murder of Lady Macduff and her Children; class 134; the greater silver pallet.

To Mr. G. Jones, Great Portland-street, for an original historical drawing from Ossian's Poems; the lesser silver pallet.

To Mr. Middiman, Lower Grafton-street, for a print engraved by him from Zucarelli; class 135; the gold medal.

To Mr. Henry Hole, near the Botanic garden, Liverpool, for an engraving on wood; class 146; the gold pallet.

To Mr. Richard Austin, jun. Paul's-alley, Barbican, for a wood engraving of Yorick's Monument; class 147; the greater silver pallet.

To Mr. J. Carey, for a map of Cardiganshire; the gold medal.

To Mr. J. S. Halfpenny, Stafford-place, Pimlico, for an outline of the Apollo Belvidere; class 129; the greater silver pallet.

To Mr. H. D. Thielcke, Stafford-place, Pimlico, for an outline of the Apollo Belvidere; class 129; the lesser silver pallet.

IN MANUFACTURES.—To Mr. James Birch, Tavistock-mews, Tavistock-street, Tottenham-court-road, for an improved Swivel Loom; twenty-five guineas.

To Mr. James Pickard, Skinner-street, Bishopsgate-street, for an improved Engine Loom; twenty guineas.

IN MECHANICS.—To the Chevalier A. N. Edelecrantz of Sweden, Knt. of the Polar Star, for a safety valve for steam engines; the silver medal.

To Mr. William Hardy, Chapel-street, for a method of banking the balance of a time-keeper; thirty guineas.

To Mr. Thomas Holden, of Petworth, in Sussex, for a machine to do all the thread-work in shoemaking standing; fifteen guineas.

To the Rev. D. Pape, Penn, near Wolverhampton, for improving Rye harbour; the gold medal.

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To Captain Brodie, Royal Navy, Leith; for Marine Improvements; the gold medal.

To Mr. R. Seppings, Chatham-yard, for obviating the necessity of lifting ships; the gold medal.

To Mr. George Walby, Goswel-street, for a hammer for making trowels; the silver medal and forty guineas.

To Mr. George Dodd, Duke-street, Portland-place, for an improved gun lock; the silver medal, and ten guineas.

To Mr. James Rawlinson, Derby, for an improved colour mill; the silver medal, and ten guineas.

To Mr. J. M. Elliot, Little Castle-street, for an improved repeating watch; thirty guineas.

In Colonies and Trade.—To J. W. Clarke, Esq. for the culture of hemp; the gold medal.

To Mr. Jacob Schneider, York, Upper Canada, for the culture of hemp; class 188; the gold medal, or 100 dollars.

To Mr. Daniel Mosher, Kingston, Upper Canada, for the culture of hemp; class 189; the silver medal, or 80 dollars.

To Walter Baine, Esq. Greenock, for curing white herrings; the silver medal.

The Rev. William Pierrepoint of Burton-Park, Sussex, has communicated to the Society of Arts a method for feeding lean and fattening other stock by means of potatoes prepared in an oven. This method from several experiments seems to answer still better than one which we formerly mentioned of feeding cattle by means of steamed potatoes. The former process requires much less fuel than the latter, and is therefore much cheaper. It will be found detailed at length in the transactions of the Society for the encouragement of arts, manufactures, and commerce.

Art of Restoring Decayed Books, &c.—J. Vialard, at Paris, has been employed for several years on the art of restoring, or regenerating, books, designs, outlines, prints, &c. The public is primarily indebted to the learned Chaptal for this valuable discovery; but Vialard has carried it to a high degree of perfection. He acknowledges that he has had instructions from the best masters; and that he has discovered nothing peculiar in the art, but the improvement of it, both in the use and in the composition of acid liquors, and in having been the first to render it applicable to the purposes of commerce. His first lessons were given by M. Roux, whose talents for the repairing of prints are above all eulogium. He is indebted to M. Roger, an excellent artist in all that relates to the purification of oils, for his acquaintance with the composition of acids. M. Heraud, an apothecary, now residing at Briondes, has likewise communicated the result of his observations; and the experiments which they have made together, have been so much the more useful, in that they have conducted Citizen Vialard to the composition of a new liquor, indispensable for removing greasy substances, and recovering paper that is mouldy, rotten, and even damaged by sea water. M. Bozerian, the elder, whose talents are well-known, has communicated the process of restoring to paper the strong tone which it had lost, either from its antiquity, or from its having been stained by acids. His judicious observations have been of singular help in difficult circumstances. Citizen Vialard has not been discouraged in his career by the very many difficulties which he has met with, and which might be considered as almost insurmountable. His first experiments served to strengthen his confidence. The flattering testimonies of the Conservators of the National Libraries, and of others, the most distinguished by their knowledge of ancient books, attracted the regards of the learned societies, all of whom have pronounced in his favour. Citizen Vialard can now, therefore, announce both to the amateurs, and to those engaged in trade, the infallible means of restoring valuable articles, the antiquity of which is a fresh call upon our gratitude to the inventors of the typographic art; but whose bad condition seems to say to the proprietors, *Nolite nos tangere*—Touch us not. According to Citizen Vialard, the manutention (or handling) of spoiled paper is familiar to him. He is well acquainted with the difference of printer's ink, and the superior care that is required in meddling with what has been used in one age, to what has been used in another. The composition of different acid liquors renders the application of them more easy and safe; and he avers that he can make a splendid book of one that is worm eaten, mouldy, rotten, and that has been even drenched in the sea water; and that books in this deplorable state, which have been consigned to him, have recovered their former beauty and freshness.

New vegetable Acid.—M. Klaproth, in Sherer's Journal of Chemistry, has given a paper on the nature of a saline substance observed and collected in the botanical garden of Palermo, by Mr. Thomson, on the bark of the white mulberry tree (*Morus alba*). This matter was of a brownish colour; it covered and even penetrated the bark. Its taste was nearly similar to that of the succinic acid On coals it swelled up slightly and burned, leaving an earthy residuum. A thousand parts of water dissolved thirty-five parts of this salt warm, and fifteen cold. By evaporation it gave crystals in needles united in a radiated form, and of a pale woad colour. Barytes formed no precipitate in the solution of this salt. Alkaline carbonates occasioned in it a brown deposit, which by calcination passed to white, and then dissolved with effervescence in nitric acid. The sulphuric and oxalic acids occasioned in a nitric solution of it precipitates, which indicated the presence of lime. Acetite of lead formed in it an insoluble precipitate, reducible on burning coals. Nitrate of silver, brown, brilliant, and light scales. These experiments induced M. Klaproth to conclude that the salt collected on the bark of the mulberry tree was composed of lime and a particular vegetable acid. M. Klaproth proposes to call this acid the *moronilic*, and its saline combinations *moronitates*.

New Metal extracted from Platina.—In a late sitting of the National Institute, Collet Descostils, engineer of mines, read a memoir, in which he announced the discovery of a new metal found in great abundance in the black dust left by platina when dissolved in the nitro-muriatic acid. The principal properties of this metal are: It gives a red colour to the triple salts of platina; with the triple ammoniacal salt of platina it is precipitated: it is easily reduced: it dissolves readily in acids, even the nitro-muriatic, when in the metallic state; the oxides are green or blue, or at least communicate these colours to the acids in which they are dissolved: these oxides seem to be volatile, &c. C. Descostils found also that the sand which accompanies platina contains titanium when susceptible of attraction by the magnet, and that when not so it contains chrome. In the same sitting Fourcroy and Vauquelin presented a memoir also on this new metal. They stated, that having known that C. Descotils had made the discovery, they were unwilling to dispute with him that honour, and that they had waited till he should announce it before they published a large work they have composed on that subject.

The oliferous China Radish.—This plant has been cultivated of late years in Piedmont and the Milanese. From 3½ ounces of seed a farmer named Grandi obtained a produce of 583 pounds, which yielded 200lbs. of oil. It is employed for culinary uses and burns as well as the common oil. They are sown in the Milanese in March, or the beginning of April. The land is ploughed in autumn, and again before the seed is sown, but not manured. It is then rolled, so that the seed is covered about half an inch. The plants are thinned so as to leave at least a distance between them of 2½ inches. If broken by hail or other accidents, they push up new shoots.

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METHOD OF FATTENING PIGEONS.—M. Parmentier recommends the following method of fattening pigeons for the table. When the little animals have attained the 20th day, and when the under part of them begin to be covered with feathers, and the quills to appear, take them out of the dove cote, put them in a nest by themselves, and cover them with a basket that will exclude the light but admit the air. Twice a day, early in the morning and early in the evening, feed them with Indian corn soaked for 24 hours in water. Open the bills gently and make each according to his size and species swallow from 80 to 100 grains. Continue this for 10 or 15 days, and the pigeons will be fat and delicate.

ANTIQUITIES.—In digging the canal of Aiguemortes at Beaucaire, tombs, earthen vases, and copper rings of great antiquity have been discovered. These tombs which are at the distance of about 1500 toises from the present course of the Rhone, consist of large chambers of uncut stone placed vertically, joined to each other without cement or mortar, and covered with stones of the same form. Some of them contain human bones in such good preservation that the structure of them with their different laminæ can be easily distinguished. In some others were found earthen vessels glazed and unglazed, with four handles, in the form of cinerary urns. There were found also some *amphoræ* containing copper rings or bracelets which the ancients and particularly the Gauls wore on their arms.

HYDROGRAPHY.—An officer many years in the army in the East Indies being struck with Mr. Churchman's idea of reducing to a system all the changes of the land gaining on the sea, and *vice versa* has made known these facts. He was acquainted with a lady who died at Madras in the year 1797, at the advanced age of 96 years, who used to say that the sea had encroached there about 3 English miles within her remembrance; that some years ago a row of cocoa nut trees stood in the place where ships now ride at anchor. From the time he left India in 1794, until his return there in 1799, the sea had encroached so much as to cause the beach-house belonging to the customs which stood at the south end of the fort to be removed three miles to the north of it, and that the sea at that place continued to encroach gradually on the land every year.

DISINFECTING AIR BY MURIATIC ACID GAS.—A report has been made to the class of physical and mathematical sciences of the French National Institute, on the means of disinfecting air, and preventing contagion, on which a treatise had been read by Guyton. From this report where a variety of experiments are detailed, it appears that the most efficient agent for this purpose is *muriatic acid gas*, which is to be employed in greater or less quantities according to circumstances. The class has approved of the report, and decreed that *Guyton* should be requested to give a succinct explanation of his method. It has also resolved that government should be requested to employ fumigations of this acid in all the hospitals, lazarettos, and vessels of the country.

ACID FUMIGATIONS FOR INFECTED CATTLE.—T. Rasori has lately communicated to M. Guyton Morveau the result of some experiments made with acid fumigations to destroy contagious diseases among cattle. Six oxen, which had for several days been attacked by an epizootic fever, died, though acid fumigations were employed. A cow was confined in a cow-house, where their straw and even the body of one of them had been left, and continued there forty days, during which fumigations with oxymuriatic acid gas were regularly made. The cow remained in good health, and showed no symptoms of disease. Sixty-two oxen, all evidently diseased, and of which eight were almost dying, were shut up in two cow-houses where similar fumigations were made; fifty-two of them were perfectly cured, though housed with the infected cattle. The author asks, whether they might not have been cured without the use of the fumigations?

HORNEMAN, THE TRAVELLER.—The Danish consul at Tripoli, M. Nissen, saw in September last, at the house of the Pacha's minister, *Ali Muhamed Dghies*, a merchant of Fezzan, who had arrived with the caravan, and who had been at Buran. From this merchant he learned that Horneman the celebrated traveller, who was known at that place under the name of Jussuf, had set out for Gondash in order to proceed to the coast for the purpose of returning to Europe.

EXTINGUISHING FIRES.—M. Driuzzi has invented a kind of liquor which in certain cases prevents combustion. It consists of two parts of common soda dissolved in seven pints of water, which is reduced to two-thirds by ebullition, and strained through a piece of cloth. The liquor has no more effect on wood however than common water, but it is very useful in extinguishing fires produced by oily, fat, and bituminous substances.

VON HUMBOLDT.——The traveller, Von Humboldt, whose scientific researches we have several times had occasion to notice, died lately at Acapulco of the yellow fever.

BUST OF CASTI.—The celebrated sculptor, Conolli, professor of that art in the Athenée of Turin, has executed a beautiful bust of the lately deceased Italian poet *Casti*, for the vice-president of that republic. The following inscription, written by the poet himself is placed upon it: "*Casti—cui. miro. carmina. dicere. verum—nil. vetuit.*"

GERMAN CONCORDAT.—The Ex-Jesuit, father *Zallinger*, who has made himself known by a variety of writings, and for a long time Rector of the Jesuit College at Augsburg, has at the instance of the papal auditor Troni, been sent for from Augsburg to Rome, to give his advice in regard to the arrangement of a Concordat between the Pope and Germany.

COMMERCIAL ACADEMY.—The merchants of Moscow, have lately established a Commercial Academy for the instruction of the poor children and orphans of merchants. The Empress Dowager having been solicited to patronize it, she received the request in the most gracious manner, and with such assurances of protection and assistance as leaves no room to doubt that this establishment will soon be placed on the most flourishing footing.

PENSA ACADEMY.—The equestrian order of our government, instigated by a desire to promote the public welfare, and being conscious that the first step towards this is the propagation of knowledge, have endowed the academy of this city with the yearly sum of 2,500 rubles (£312) for which they have received a distinguished mark of his Imperial Majesty's approbation.

RUSSIAN MILITARY AND CIVIL LECTURES.—By order of the Emperor public lectures have begun to be delivered in the Artillery Corps, on Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry, &c. The lecturers are men distinguished for their knowledge and talents. The officers are under the necessity of diligently attending these lectures, as they cannot in future be promoted without a very strict inquiry into their proficiency in the above branches. The Minister of the Interior, Count Kotschubei, has also appointed men of eminence to deliver lectures to the young officers employed in his department, in order to render them more capable of properly discharging their duties to the state.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.

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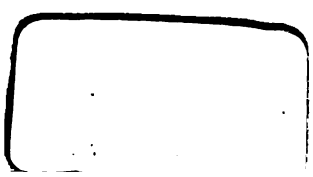

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